DOCUMENT RESUME

ED 263 694 EA 018 264

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TITLE Instructional Leadership in Eight Secondary Schools. Final Report.
INSTITUTION Center for Action Research, Inc., Boulder, Colo.
SPONS AGENCY National Inst. of Education (ED), Washington, DC.
PUB DATE Jun 85
GRANT NIE-G-82-0020
NOTE 281p.; Tables use small print.
PUB TYPE Reports - Research/Technical (143)

EDRS PRICE MF01/PC12 Plus Postage.
DESCRIPTORS Administrator Attitudes; Administrator Role; Case Studies; Decentralization; Educational Environment; Interprofessional Relationship; *Leadership; Leadership Responsibility; Organizational Climate; Organizational Communication; Participative Decision Making; Peer Evaluation; *Principals; *School Organization; Secondary Education; *Secondary Schools; Supervisory Methods; Surveys; *Teacher Administrator Relationship; Teacher Attitudes; *Teacher Supervision
IDENTIFIERS *Instructional Leadership

ABSTRACT

This study examined instructional leadership in eight diverse secondary schools in four urban, suburban, and small-city school districts in one western state. The aim was to gain access to a set of schools that provided both variety in instructional leadership and diversity in school size, organization, grade level, faculty and student characteristics, and circumstances. Case studies were conducted in five schools during the first year, and a survey of expectations and practices--developed from findings of the case studies--was distributed to administrators, department heads, and teachers in these five and three other schools during the second year. This report begins with an extensive summary of the methodology, findings, and implications of the study as a whole. This is followed by chapters in which the following topics are discussed in depth: (1) theory and action (leadership and the character of schools); (2) views of instructional leadership (a review of the literature); (3) control, freedom, and opportunity (the school as an informal organization); (4) findings on instructional leadership from the five case studies; (5) observing and being observed at work (findings from the survey); and (6) leadership by teachers. Results of the survey are tabulated, and six pages of references are included. (TE)

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INSTRUCTIONAL LEADERSHIP IN EIGHT SECONDARY SCHOOLS

Final Report

Tom Bird
Judith Warren Little

June 1985

EA 018 261

The study reported here was conducted at the Center for Action Research, Inc., Boulder, Colorado, with the support of the National Institute of Education (grant number NIE-G-82-0020). The report does not necessarily reflect the views of that agency.

Acknowledgements

The teachers, department heads, and administrators of eight schools gave their time, thoughts, and assistance generously and with good humor. Barbara Guzzetti joined in the data collection in the first year of the study. Barbara Morse participated in the second year's surveys; she bore the main burden of making sure that everything got from the schools to the right files, properly labeled. Zeke Little consulted on the survey analysis and produced the orderly mass of exceptions which persuaded the University of Colorado's computers to produce a large number of unconventional tables. Robert Hunter was always ready to help sort through the notions of norms, roles, and status; there is no doubt that we have used some of his--and through him, others'--constructions without even noticing. Paula Hiatt is the Manager for the Center for Action Research; she supported the project in too many ways to summarize. In the final stages of producing the report, Karen Bird came through yet another time.

Jim Weyand persuaded us that character and curiosity are indispensable components of instructional leadership. With him, we found that the dignity in work often is found in its daily details, and that describing and celebrating those details can move the worker.

These debts acknowledged, the authors accept responsibility for the report.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

	Page
Summary. INSTRUCTIONAL LEADERSHIP IN SECONDARY SCHOOLS	-
I. A Study of Instructional Leadership	S-1
II. Study Findings	S-9
III. Leaders, Schools, and Districts	S-18
Chapter 1. THEORY AND ACTION	
I. Leadership and the Character of Schools	1-1
II. Instructional Leadership	1-2
III. A Study of Eight Secondary Schools	1-5
IV. Knowledge of Action, Knowledge in Action	1-6
Chapter 2. VIEWS OF INSTRUCTIONAL LEADERSHIP A Review of Literature	
I. The New Call for Instructional Leadership	2-1
II. Who Should Lead Instruction?	2-4
III. Issues and Images of Leadership	2-6
IV. Theory Development	2-23
Chapter 3. CONTROL, FREEDOM, AND OPPORTUNITY The School as an Informal Organization	
I. Norms	3-4
II. Cooperation: Roles, Positions, and Status	3-15
III. Informal Organization as an Open System	3-28
Chapter 4. IS THERE INSTRUCTIONAL LEADERSHIP IN SECONDAY SCHOOLS? Findings from Five Case Studies	
I. Study Origins and Aims	4-2
II. Case Studies in Five Secondary Schools	4-6
III. An Illustrative Case: Getting into Classrooms	4-14
IV. Conclusions	4-28
Chapter 5. OBSERVING AND BEING OBSERVED AT WORK A Survey of Expectations and Practices	
I. Assessments of Observation and Observers	5-1
II. Survey Measures and Reporting Formats	5-3
III. Expectations, Practices, and Assessments in Eight Schools	5-14
Tables	5-38

Chapter 6. LEADERSHIP BY TEACHERS

I. The Call for Leadership by Teachers 6-1
II. Survey Findings 6-8
III. Conclusions 6-17
Tables 6-20

References

Summary
INSTRUCTIONAL LEADERSHIP IN SECONDARY SCHOOLS
A Study of Eight Schools

I. A STUDY OF INSTRUCTIONAL LEADERSHIP.

Demands for improvement in teaching combine with expanding research on teaching in calls for stronger leadership and support of instruction. Principals who bear diverse responsibilities for many aspects of school operation are being urged or told to pay greater and more specific attention to instruction-- particularly to teachers' classroom practices--by way of expanded inservice training, promotion of teamwork by teachers, improved supervision, or more vigorous evaluation of teachers. In the merit pay, career ladder, teaming, mentor teacher and peer coaching initiatives, teachers who typically have worked in isolation are called upon to examine their practices together, to support each other in advancing those practices, and to recognize and follow leaders in their ranks.

A. Leadership and School Organization.

The call for instructional leadership coincides with increasing interest in schools' organization, or in schools as organizations--distinct entities with characteristic patterns of action and consequences. Two different arguments are prominent in the current literature. In one argument, each school has a distinctive "ethos", a characteristic totality of policies, practices, perspectives, and tone. This ethos is argued to be an important factor in outcomes for students: achievement, satisfaction, and deportment, including juvenile delinquency (see, e.g., Rutter et al., 1979; or NIE, 1978). Likewise, the ethos of the school can affect the perspectives, performance, and improvement of its staff (see, e.g., Little, 1982; or Bossert et al., 1981). This argument emphasizes the importance of school organization as a distinctive object of policy and leadership.

In another argument, schools are compared with the rational ideal of formal organizations, where decisions have consequences, and where the decisions of leaders mold the organization and set its direction. In this argument, schools seldom resemble that ideal. Rather, they are "loose assemblages". Schools' parts are only loosely related. As wholes, schools are only loosely related to their districts and to other parties which seek to influence

them. In this view, it is difficult to see how schools could maintain characteristic patterns, how they could have distinctive or stable effects, or how they could be managed by way of authoritative decisionmaking (see Weick, 1976; or Crowson and Morris, 1982).

Both arguments tell that schools as organizations have properties of their own, that schools as organizations are distinct and somewhat independent both from persons who work in them and from persons who would influence them. While the first argument proclaims the importance of school organization to school policy and school leadership, the second casts doubt that schools respond much to policy and leadership. In either argument, schools as organizations must be considered in their own right.

This study viewed schools as informal social organizations. As such, schools can be loosely organized by comparison to the formal ideal and at the same time distinctive both in their patterns and their effects. They can be distinct from and somewhat independent of the persons who work in and upon them, and at the same time can be shaped and led--by means in which authority and other formal provisions play definite but also limited parts.

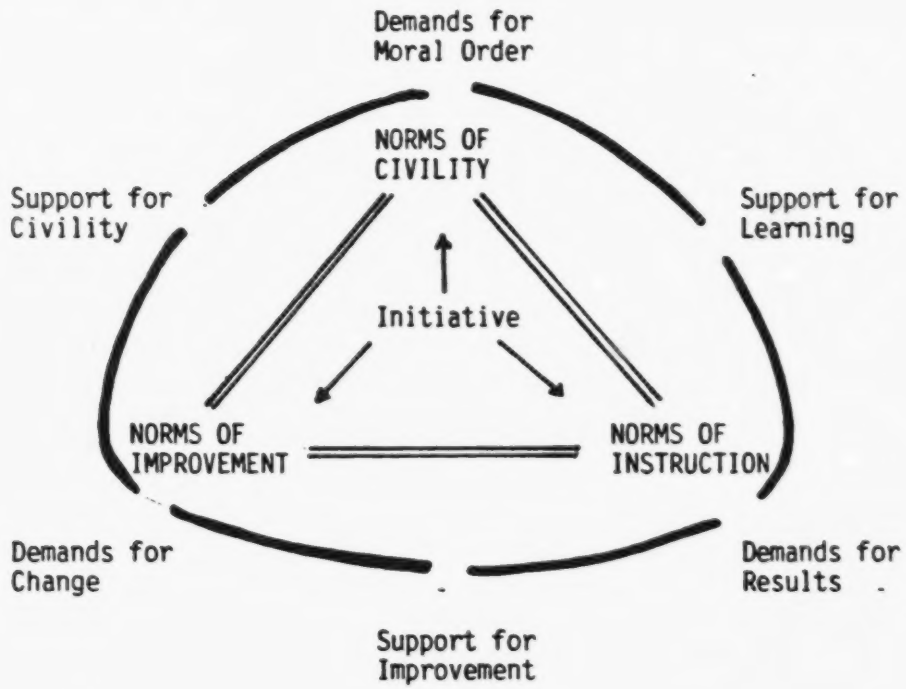
1. Schools as Open Organizations. Many important matters about schools can be seen in their norms, their expected and usual ways of doing the work of the school. Many important features of schools may be seen (Figure S-1) in their norms of civility, the ways of dealing humanely and fairly; their norms of instruction, the ways of teaching students; and their norms of improvement, the ways in which the school and its staff get better at what they do. By virtue of its norms, a school maintains stable patterns of action. The norms are not altered easily or at will; the school is distinct both from its members and from external parties.

At the same time, schools are not fixed by their norms. As informal social organizations, schools are open systems: they influence and are influenced by their environments and participants. The norms of civility, of instruction, and of improvement may be shaped by combinations of external demands and supports and internal initiatives and dealings of schools' staffs.

In this study, norms were viewed and measured as variably shared, variably intense, and thus variably effective expectations for persons' behavior in specific situations. A faculty might not agree fully in all its expectations for behavior in the school. A faculty's various expectations for behavior might not be equally intense. Whatever the expectations, behavior in the school can be influenced by factors other than

expectations. Usual behavior can depart appreciably from expected behavior. Even so, just as American men usually wear short or long pants, schools are capable of maintaining patterns. On the same day, they can be both characteristic environments with powerful influences on their members and loose assemblages which respond sluggishly, or not at all, to efforts which treat them as bureaucracies.

Figure S-1. Schools as Open Organizations



2. School Norms and Leadership. In many schools, the norms of improvement support neither the close examination of instruction nor vigorous leadership of instruction. Rather, there are norms of autonomy or independence for teachers, who seldom are observed or observe each other at work, seldom engage each other or administrators in careful examination or improvement of specific practices. In such conditions, one would not expect to see many distinct, specific, or powerful norms either for instruction or for civility. Rather, the school's leaders would attempt to "buffer" a weakly organized "technical core" from external disruption.

In a few schools where instruction is more strongly emphasized and organized, instruction is less a core to be buffered than an engine which drives the school and shapes its other parts. Here, the norms of improvement call for specific interaction about teaching. Teachers are observed at work. The school's leaders are engaged with teachers in the advancement of teaching in the school. The work of other staff is aligned to the emphasis on teaching and learning. The school succeeds in its environment largely by concerted attention to instruction.

The question then arises whether the norms found in these few schools can be forged in many other schools. The finding is one thing; the forging, say the studies of implementation, is quite another. By the terms of Figure S-1, external demands and external support can play parts in the effort. By the terms of the loose coupling argument, those measures have distinct limits. Much will depend on the initiatives of principals and teachers.

3. Control, Freedom, and Opportunity. As systems of norms which govern activities and relationships, schools present three faces to their participants. One face is control--the necessity of conforming to widely shared and strongly held expectations. Another face is freedom to act at will in the face of weak or inconsistent expectations, or in the presence of alternate rationales for conduct, or in the absence of the persons who hold the expectations. The third face is opportunity to shape the school by negotiation and initiative.

In the view of schools as informal social organizations, a system of sometimes weak and sometimes inconsistent norms operating in a complex environment cannot be sufficient to combine the school's various activities into a going concern which can respond to changes in its surroundings, student body, tasks, and opportunities. Some of the shortfall is made up by sensible persons' using their individual freedom, acting independently to do what is sensible.

And some of the shortfall is made up by leadership. Persons in the school take initiative with each other. They assert their positions, assignments, information, knowledge, skills, or virtues to influence others' behavior and views. They move, and they move others, either to maintain or to change the usual and expected ways of doing the work of the schools. As they assert themselves and their positions, they invoke the school's norms of leadership. These, like the school's other norms, may control leaders' actions, and allow them freedom to act as leaders, and provide them opportunities to change the conceptions of leadership in their schools. How that works in regard to instruction in secondary schools was this study's central subject.

B. Eight Secondary Schools.

Secondary schools were studied to help balance the attention which has been paid to elementary schools in research to date. The eight secondary schools in this study were chosen to provide variety in the schools' circumstances and characteristics and because their principals were thought, either by study staff or by district staff, to be proficient instructional leaders. Five schools were chosen in the the first year of the study; three more were added in the second.

1. Small City District. This district serves a population of about 35,000 persons in a primarily rural area 40 miles from a major metropolitan center. The local economy combines agriculture with several high-technology industries. This socioeconomically diverse district includes seventeen elementary schools, four junior high schools, and three high schools.

Daniels Junior High School (School 4) is located in the town's original (and aging) high school and serves about 900 students, of whom about 40% recieve free or reduced-price lunches. During the twelve-year tenure of the principal, and with his leadership, the school has established a reputation for professional competence, initiative, and innovation. The most vigorous instructional leadership practices in the study were found here.

Emerson High School (School 5) draws about a third of its approximately 900 students from Daniels. In the past three years, the principal and assistant principals have taken initiative to work with each other and with teachers to improve classroom practices. Daniels' and Emerson's principals fairly are described as cronies in the most favorable sense. The effort at Daniels has influenced the initiative at Emerson; their combined efforts have influenced and sometimes made policy for their district.

Franklin Junior High School (School 6) was added to the study in the second year. The faculty participated in surveys but no case study was made. Franklin serves approximately 600 students. Like another of the junior high schools in the district, it was built when Daniels grew too large. Franklin's principal and assistant principal, like those from Daniels and Emerson, are members of a secondary principals' study group which was formed largely by the initiative of the principals at Daniels and Emerson. Franklin's administrators have been influenced by the developments at Daniels and Franklin, and have made their own contributions to the collective venture. As the study was made, they were emphasizing increased leadership by department heads.

Small City district's principals have a large voice in the selection of their assistant principals. The teacher's organization and contract are both described as being weak.

2. Big City District. This urban district serves an ethnically diverse population of approximately 500,000 with 81 elementary schools, 18 middle schools, and ten high schools. In the last three years, nine schools have closed as enrollment has declined and persons have moved to the suburbs. The district has operated under a variety of court-ordered desegregation plans for the past fourteen years. The teachers' organization is strong in this district; the contract closely governs teacher selection, assignment, transfer, scheduling, evaluation, and staff development. Administrators have little influence over the selection and placement of assistant principals; the membership of some building-level administrative teams has changed frequently. Three of the district's ten high schools participated in the study. Each enrolls between 1,000 and 1,500 students and has 70 to 100 teachers. Each has a minority population exceeding 40%.

Once a vocational high school, Andrews High School (School 1) has emerged with a reputation for being academically strong and for preserving a high degree of harmony among its now diverse student population. This school was chosen in large part on others' impression that the principal is skillful in garnering support from the faculty and community. Andrews' principal has tried to foster communication within the faculty as a basic vehicle for improvement.

Bolton High School (School 2) is ethnically mixed but socioeconomically homogeneous, drawing most of its students from lower-income areas of the city. In four years at Bolton, the principal has promoted higher expectations for achievement and attendance, organized staff responsibilities and time to permit greater concentration on curriculum and instruction, and moved toward more focused classroom observation and teacher evaluation.

Carlson High School (School 3) has a relatively new building, and once drew a largely white and affluent student body. Teaching assignments here have been and are considered to be "plums." Teachers and students alike say the school is oriented to college preparation. Without prompting, the principal moves quickly from pride in the school's National Merit finalists to pride in the test scores of the school's lowest quartile. The principal protests that he is not an instructional leader, leaving open the question of how the school has maintained its achievements and esprit as the school's student body became increasingly diverse.

3. Two Large Suburban High Schools. Two suburban high schools from different districts were added to the study in the second year. In these large schools (student bodies exceeding 2,000), principals say that they rely heavily on department heads to lead the faculties. Grant High School's principal (School 7) enlisted department heads to expand the school's capacity to observe and evaluate teachers, and is concerned to build the position of department head toward more active leadership of teaching. He was interested in the study's contributing to these efforts. Hayes High School's principal (School 8) had quite a different view. He knew his school could recruit teachers from other districts, and turned that into an element of an informal understanding with teachers. He would organize the school so that superb teaching would be the teachers' only responsibility; their part was to make the school the best at everything that high schools do. He points to some evidence that his formula works at his high school. He denies specifically that it would work equally well in other schools.

4. Diverse Conditions and Practices. These few schools in one state were purposefully selected in order to look at varieties of instructional leadership. They provide no grounds for generalization to many schools on the basis of sampling. At the same time, these schools presented a wide range of external conditions, of internal structures, of student bodies and staffs, and of improvement and leadership practices. They serve their main purpose for this study, which was to describe and understand possible variations and meanings of "instructional leadership." On the grounds of variety in the schools and practices, it is reasonable to frame working hypotheses which could guide practical research and reflective action in many schools.

C. Study Procedures.

Case studies in five schools and surveys in eight schools were combined to obtain both detailed descriptions from a few respondents and cruder reports from many respondents of the expected and usual ways of leadership and improvement.

1. Case Studies in Five Schools. In the first year of the project, case studies were made in two Small City Schools (Daniels and Emerson) and in the three Big City schools (Andrews, Bolton, and Carlson). Principals, assistant principals, some department heads, and some teachers were interviewed and observed at work. Eventually, more than 4,000 pages of transcribed interviews, field notes, Q-sort tables, and local documents were compiled for a detailed description, from the points of view of a few persons in each school and district, of instructional leadership and school improvement practices. Chapter 4 is based primarily on this work.

2. Surveys in Eight Schools. In the second year, two questionnaires were derived from the case studies and distributed to all administrators, department heads, and teachers in the five schools of the first year and in the three added schools. The first survey dealt primarily with observation and evaluation. It compared principals, department heads, and teachers as potential observers of teachers. The survey return rates ranged from 77% to 100% in six of the schools, and were 50% and 60% in the two remaining schools. The second survey dealt more generally with administrators' support of instructional improvement, inservice training, and instructional leadership by teachers. The second survey was distributed in the six schools with the higher return rates on the first survey; the return rate for the second survey ranged from 65% to 97% in five of the schools, and was 44% in the sixth. In both surveys, respondents were asked to indicate their approval or disapproval of specific possibilities for instructional leadership, and to say which of those possibilities best described the actual practice in their schools. Chapters 5 and 6 are based primarily on survey findings.

3. Analysis and Projection. The analysis of these data had three main purposes. The first was to describe and compare instructional leadership practices in the schools studied. What do leaders do, and how? The second was to discover the requirements of the more vigorous instructional leadership practices where they were found. How were those practices built and maintained? The third purpose was to estimate whether the more vigorous instructional leadership practices could be used in the schools where they were not found.

II. STUDY FINDINGS.

These findings describe some features of eight secondary schools in a Western state. The schools were selected because they were nearby and because they provided the opportunity to examine varieties of instructional leadership in diverse school and district conditions. The schools were not chosen to provide a representative sample of schools either in that state or in the country. Still, this study is impractical if it does not speak somehow to those other schools. The following sections place the findings in the context of selected arguments about the present condition of schools and teaching. And they move from the findings to conclusions and suggestions which the findings by themselves cannot sustain. Those things are done with the understandings, first, that many schools may fall within the range of practices seen here and, second, that readers can be relied upon to retain their curiosity.

A. Observing and Being Observed at Work.

Teaching tends to leave few immediate traces. Rather, it is held in its performance. To understand it, share it, evaluate it, or help improve it, one must be present and prepared. Yet teachers are not often watched skillfully, either by teachers or by others. The acquired skills and understandings of teachers are unlikely to be shared in one generation of teachers or accumulated for the benefit of successive generations of teachers. It is less likely that unfamiliar research could be applied in that classroom. And teachers rarely receive that kind of recognition which can come only from someone who is present and prepared to see. Whether for supervision, for evaluation, for support of implementation of research-based practices, for mutual support among teachers, or for accumulation of teachers' lore, observation of teaching appears to be a critical improvement practice.

Observation and evaluation took a large place in this study, both as an illustrative case which brought out the demands, principles, and strategies of instructional leadership, and as a central practice of leadership in its own right (see Chapters 4 and 5). Where the most vigorous instructional leadership was found in the first year's case studies, extensive and skillful observation of teachers was a primary component. Observation of teaching was an intellectually lively effort to understand teaching and learning. Its first purposes were to stimulate and support teachers in advancing their practices, to help teachers to apply their training and study of teaching, and to confirm that the teaching and its improvement were the main business of the school. It appeared to achieve these purposes.

That same practice of observation also served evaluation and accountability. At the same time that many teachers were called upon--and supported--to improve, a few teachers were given reasons to ask themselves whether they should teach in that school, or should teach at all. On two occasions, tenured teachers were asked to resign on the grounds that they taught poorly and were not improving. They resigned. The administrators' ability to hold teachers accountable for their teaching appeared to depend on their ability to support and help teachers.

1. Nine Dimensions of Observation. The case studies were gleaned for nine practical dimensions of observation and evaluation, and a related dimension of initiative in regard to a teaching practice. These dimensions were titled:

Frequency of Observation
Duration of Observation
Leadup to Observation
Recording During Observation
Deference in Feedback
Followup After Observation
Link of Observation to Evaluation
Praise from Observation
Initative Regarding a (Teaching) Practice

In the first survey of staff in the study schools, each of these dimensions was represented by a series of specific options for observers' behavior. Respondents indicated their degree of approval or disapproval of each of these options. They selected one option from each dimension to represent the actual practice in their schools.

Principals, department heads, and teachers were compared systematically as potential observers and instructional leaders. Each dimension and its options were repeated, first with an administrator as the observer, then with a department head, and then with a teacher. Responses were aggregated by groups: all respondents in the school, teachers, department heads, and administrators. Thus the views of groups could be compared. And a group's views of the three potential observer-evaluators could be compared.

Finally, all respondents assessed both the concreteness, specificity, utility, use, etc. of observation practices in their schools and the fairness, clarity, and intent to help of persons who observed teachers in the school.

2. Observation by Administrators. The eight schools studied included the range of supervision and evaluation practices likely to be found in most secondary schools, from nominal visits to extensive examination of teachers' work in the classroom. Teachers who reported that the most vigorous observation and

evaluation options were being used in their schools also approved those options more than weaker possibilities. They rated their schools' observation practices and observers very favorably, more favorably than teachers in the schools with the weakest observation and evaluation practices.

Where the strong observation practices were found, the principals involved had devoted considerable energy to reading and attending training which would build their knowledge and skill both of teaching and of observation. They practiced thoughtfully. And they devoted a great deal of their time to observation. In Daniels Junior High School, the principal or assistant principal observed five successive meetings of a teacher's class in the fall and another five meetings of a class in the spring. All of the school's 45 teachers were observed in this way each year.

In all schools, teachers approved most of observation-evaluation options which were more extensive and demanding than those which, in teachers' reports, their administrators were actually using. They were most agreed, and felt most strongly, that specific written descriptions of excellent work by teachers should appear in their files. In the school with the most extensive and skillful observation by administrators, teachers approved most of the open-ended option for follow-up: "observes the teacher's class from time to time until there is improvement." They reported that their administrators were meeting that expectation.

The detailed findings (see Chapter 5) invite the interpretation that teachers support rigorous observation procedures which can hold teachers accountable for their practices, when those same procedures also support them and provide them recognition for their work in the classroom. This is in distinction from evaluation practices directed primarily to detecting and correcting poor performance, and from observation practices without substantial consequences of any kind, both of which were seen in the study.

Going somewhat beyond these findings, it may be argued that accountability in teaching is a byproduct of genuine assistance in mastering teaching.

3. Observation by Department Heads. In the two large suburban high schools where department heads bore considerable responsibility, observation of teachers by department heads was more strongly approved and better regarded than observation and evaluation by administrators in the Big City Schools. Again, on several of the dimensions of observation and evaluation, teachers approved most of options which were more extensive and demanding than those which they said were being used by department heads.

In the detailed findings, it appeared that teachers were calling for observation practices which were consequential, either in providing support or in applying sanctions, as distinct from procedures which put written criticisms in their files but resulted in no substantial action either way. It appeared that department heads were in something of a marginal position. Perhaps by lacking the time, the knowledge and skill, or the authority, they were not prepared to undertake the more consequential forms of observation and thus settled for the more passive written evaluations.

Provided that they had the time and could acquire the relevant knowledge and skills, department heads had opportunities, it appeared, to strengthen their observation and evaluation practices. They could negotiate with teachers more specific understandings of what is wanted from observation and how it might be obtained, focus their attention on particular portions of the teaching repertoire in which they could build up their usefulness as observers, solicit feedback from teachers to help improve their observations, and take care to put specific written praise for excellent work in teacher's files.

4. Observation by Teachers. In two of the Big City high schools where the least active observation procedures were used, teachers as a group approved none of the survey's options for frequency of observation of teachers by teachers. These options ranged from once a year or less to twice per month or more. Elsewhere, there was some support for observation by teachers. The patterns of expectations seen for administrators and department heads applied also for teachers, and could be interpreted as openness to substantial observation practices which come nearer to matching the work of teaching.

Observation of teachers by teachers was most approved and reported most often in the schools whose principals had established strong and helpful practices of supervision based on observation. Apparently, the principals had demonstrated a model of observation which departed substantially from the stereotype of evaluation, and which then was seen to depend as much on the character of the observation practices as on the position of the observer. At Daniels Junior High (School 4), twelve teachers had undertaken a trial of peer coaching to see how it should be done and how it would work.

5. The Requirement of Reciprocity. From comparison of the study schools, observation in its various forms emerges as a powerful and demanding practice which is likely to require a corps of observers led by the principal. Observation's technical and interpersonal demands can be summarized in conjunction with its social requirement of reciprocity between observers and teachers.

o The observer must assert the knowledge and skill needed to help a practitioner of a complex craft. The least assertion which can be made in observation is something like, "I can make and report to you a description of your lesson which will shed new light on your practices and thus help you to improve them." That is the least assertion that can be made. It is a substantial assertion of knowledge, skill, and discipline. The question is what training and experience, either in teaching or in observing, would permit the observer to make the assertion in good faith.

o The teacher must defer in some way to the observer's assertion, for example, by allowing the observation, by teaching under scrutiny, and by listening carefully and actively to the observer's descriptions, interpretations, and proposals. The question here is, What prior knowledge or experience does the teacher need to grant the observer's claims to knowledge and skill, and thus to participate in the observation in good faith? How could the observer have attained, in the teacher's eyes, the stature which must be asserted in the observation?

o The observer must display the knowledge and skill which s/he necessarily asserts. The observer must make a record of the lesson which is convincing and revealing to the teacher of the lesson, or propose an interpretation of the lesson which can make sense to the teacher, or must offer feasible and credible alternatives to the practices which the teacher used. How can the observer gain and refine those skills in practice?

o The teacher must respond to the observer's assertions, at least by trying some change in behavior, materials, role with students, or perspective on teaching. Such changes are known to require effort, discipline, and courage, but if they do not occur then the observation was fruitless. Here, the requirements of observation become practically circular. The requirement of reciprocity in observation is not met without change on the teacher's part; changes in teaching behavior, materials, roles, and perspective are difficult to make without close support such as observation and feedback. The observer and teacher must start with modest efforts at which they can succeed, meet the requirements of their relationship, and then build on those gains.

o The observer's performance must improve along with the teacher's, and by much the same means: training, practice, and observant commentary from someone who was present. Observation cannot be simpler than the teaching it supports. If the observer does not advance with the teacher, the observer's assertions of knowledge and skill gradually are falsified. And the central premise of observation--that mutual examination of professional practices is necessary and good--is shown to be a lie.

Where vigorous instructional leadership was seen, active observation of teaching was seen. Where powerful observation practices were found, it appeared that the requirements of reciprocity had been met and were being met specifically in a common effort to come to grips with teaching.

B. Leadership by Teachers.

Increasing demands for improvement in teaching combine with increasing recognition of the magnitude of that task to support the various calls for leadership by teachers: merit pay plans, master and mentor teacher arrangements, career ladders, and expanded roles for department heads and grade-level leaders.

1. Instrumental Status Differences Among Teachers. An important common denominator of those initiatives is the attempt to introduce instrumental status differences among teachers. Some teachers are declared to have greater knowledge, skill, creativity, or energy than other teachers. They are granted titles, pay, training, assignments, or resources which are not granted to other teachers. These are the status differences. The selected teachers are expected to contribute to the improvement of schools and teaching. Like mentor teacher, master teacher, and career teacher, the merit pay recipient has an active position. If merit pay is to mark merit, the recipient must agree that his performance does exceed that of other teachers and must be ready to describe how it could be emulated. To the degree that the status differences actually do enable some teachers to influence others, those differences are instrumental.

To the degree that teachers work in isolation, the formation of instrumental status differences among them will be problematic. If there is little interaction about teaching, it will be difficult for prospective leaders either to attain stature in teachers' eyes or to exert that stature in an instrumental way. The questions then are whether teachers recognize and use leaders in their ranks, and whether they engage in exchanges through which those leaders could exert specific influence on teaching.

While the study's primary focus was leadership by administrators, some data were collected on these topics. The first survey's findings on observation and evaluation by department heads and teachers have been described. The second survey contained more general questions about a variety of possibilities for leadership and collaboration. These included options for leadership by department heads, for leadership by informally recognized master teachers, and for cooperation among teachers. As in the first survey, respondents expressed their approval or disapproval for these options and reported the frequency with which those options were actually employed in

their schools. Also, respondents were asked to rate the importance, to the success of a partnership between two teachers, of about twenty conditions and ways of working together. Finally, respondents reacted to seven possibilities for differential pay among teachers. Chapter 6 reports the findings. Here is its conclusion.

2. Hesitant Approval. One way to think about the findings is to compare them with two extreme images of cooperation among and leadership by teachers. In one image, teachers arrive at school in the morning, work in their rooms through the day, and leave the school in the afternoon having had few or no dealings with other teachers, and particularly not about teaching. They do their own work, by themselves. They like it that way. They don't want advice, assistance, or leadership from other teachers. They frown upon the idea. They hold a conception of teaching as a personal activity, to which they should be left.

In another image, teachers are often found together, talking about and working on teaching. They seek each other's advice and assistance. They share tasks such as writing tests. They watch each other teach--for the fun of it, for the use of it, and for the recognition and assistance which they get from it. They admire the attainments of their colleagues. They recognize and value masters in their midst, drawing upon them to advance their own work. They hold a conception of teaching as a collective undertaking, in which they engage together.

These extremes mark a complex continuum comprising many differences in perspectives, expectations, relations, exchanges, and habits.

As they show in their expectations and reports of actual practice, the faculties in this study match neither extreme. They approve of a variety of professional exchanges--weakly or moderately in most cases. They report engaging in some of those exchanges--"sometimes" is a characteristic frequency. They see and use leaders in their ranks now and then--but grant them little latitude to take initiative. On the complex continuum suggested above, the faculties in this study are considerably nearer the conception of teaching as a personal activity than to the conception of teaching as a collective activity.

But that is not by clear choice. It is difficult to believe that the faculties of these schools have been buffaloed, by some sense that prominent others desire "professional interaction," into concealing their disapproval of such exchanges. Uncertainty about the demands and the possible benefits of those exchanges is a more plausible explanation for the half-hearted responses than is insincerity regarding strongly held views.

Where their principals have taken initiative to act as principal teachers, and where teachers have been relied on as department heads, faculties tend to approve somewhat more of a larger range of collegial and leadership practices, and to resort to them more often. In both cases, it might be said, authority and the initiative which goes with it have been applied to produce behavioral models for collegiality and leadership and to provide structural support--time, resources, responsibility, contact--which cooperation and leadership require.

At this juncture, one could recall the requirement of reciprocity in observation which was described earlier. By virtue of that requirement, vigorous mutual examination of teaching is a substantial accomplishment, for which both clear models for behavior and appreciable support might be necessary. There may be a threshold of contact, knowledge, skill, and support below which instrumental status differences among teachers cannot form, because the participants are not in a position to meet the requirements. Rational persons who understand those requirements, even intuitively, well might forego any attempt to lead or to cooperate more actively than they have.

Finally, it may be doubted that basic arrangements in most of these schools are compatible with the conception of teaching as a collective venture. If these faculties much resembled that conception, they probably would be doing so mostly on their own time and with their own resources. The usual school schedule, day, and budget would provide them little opportunity or support for trying to make teaching a collective practice. Where the most active instructional leadership and cooperation regarding teaching were seen in this study, considerable overtime was a routine.

By such a route, we propose a revision of arguments made earlier: in many schools, isolation and independence among teachers is the norm--in the sense that isolation is the usual pattern, as distinct from the approved pattern. In the absence of convincing behavioral models, and in the absence of adequate time and resources for building the collective practice of teaching, teachers sensibly are uncertain that more demanding relations among them could pay off in better teaching, or in genuine assistance, or in recognition. When one adds in the clear risks in a vigorous mutual examination of teaching, many teachers are cautious, some are skeptical, and some oppose the idea.

As a group, they may appear resistant to working together. They may ignore or rebuff hesitant invitations to engage more closely. They may reject clumsy attempts to install more demanding professional relations as though they were appliances. Initiatives which underestimate the requirements of the prospective relationships may come to naught, perhaps leaving hard feelings. Humanly, the proponents of the initiatives are

more likely to attribute the deficiency to the teachers than to the ideas. Together, teachers' caution, concern, and reactions to clumsy or unfortunate intiatives would supply grounds for others to conclude that the usual case of autonomy and isolation is also the preferred and approved case, when it is not. Teachers in this study's schools have given adequate reason to doubt that they prefer isolation.

That picture contains opportunities to foster leadership by and collective practice among teachers. The initiatives would rely on teachers to rise to challenges. They would engage groups of teachers who are most interested and approving of more instrumental relations, including status differences, among them. Such initiatives would supply clear behavioral models which make it possible to imagine that more demanding and penetrating mutual looks at teaching could be survived and would pay off. They would support the formation of the new procedures and relations explicitly and specifically over some reasonable period of practice and adjustment. They would supply the resources--particularly time in the normal school day--without which the desired relations will be difficult to form.

Clearly, these initiatives would bear appreciable costs. Those costs should be set against the price of perpetuating the isolation of teachers.

III. LEADERS, SCHOOLS AND DISTRICTS.

In this study, the greatest differences in instructional leadership and its reception by teachers are between two schools in the Small City district and three schools in the Big City district. The possibility that differences among the schools reflect differences among the districts may not be rejected. There is here no attempt to reject that argument. No substantial effort was made to relate the schools' internal arrangements to their environments. The project explored the possibilities and requirements of instructional leadership as they appear within schools.

That project does not require the rejection of district differences and influences. It requires only room for faculty initiative and school organization to operate in conjunction with district-level conditions. There is that room. Loose coupling between districts and schools is argued to be a general condition of schools; principals and teachers in many schools have considerable latitude to arrange their business (Weick, 1976). Urban principals have been found to have considerable substantive and procedural latitude (Morris et al., 1981). The Big City principals claimed such latitude, and the willingness to use it. Faculties paying close attention to instruction have been reported in urban centers (Rutter et al., 1979). Like teachers in other schools, teachers in the three Big City schools often gave their highest approval ratings to observation and evaluation practices which were more extensive or demanding than the practices they saw being used in their schools. While less approving, in general, of active instructional leadership, they shared with other faculties a sense of the appropriate and useful procedures.

The Small City schools with vigorous instructional leadership were breaking new ground in their district. The principals and teachers had made extraordinary efforts which had no close equivalent in the Big City schools. They did so with district officials' knowledge, tolerance, and occasional policy support, but without substantial technical or material support. The two principals, their assistant principals, and leaders in their faculties were personal allies. They talked often and extensively about their goals, policies, and procedures. They had each other's direct support.

While their alliance spanned schools, it is best described not as a "district" difference, but as a cue to a kind of support which district officials might provide for instructional leadership and for teachers' cooperation in the improvement of teaching. Other such cues can be found here.

A. Instructional Leadership and Organization.

Instructional leadership addresses both the details of instruction and the school's organization for instruction and its improvement. In this study as in its predecessor (Little, 1981), it appears that a few schools sustain strong norms of collegiality and of continuous improvement. These norms prescribe specific efforts to get better together. And they define instructional leadership.

1. Central Improvement Practices. As in the earlier project, it appears that talk about teaching, observing and being observed at work, working together on materials, and learning from and with each other are central improvement practices. In the use and refinement of these practices, more useful and influential occupational relations may form in schools.

Among these practices, observation of teachers assumed a central position. Where vigorous instructional leadership by principals was found, it included strong observation and evaluation practices. In the schools where the most vigorous observation and evaluation practices were used, teachers' ratings of observation and evaluation were most favorable. In the school where the most vigorous observation and evaluation was seen, the teachers most approved of the open-ended option for follow-up of observation: "observes the class again from time to time until there is improvement." In other schools, teachers often gave their highest approval ratings to options more stringent, extensive, and systematic than they reported that their administrators or department heads actually employed.

By observation, instructional leaders and teachers gained concrete and shared experience of the classroom on which more specific and useful talk about teaching and more pointed work on plans and materials could be based. By observation, instructional leaders both discovered what specific support teachers needed to apply their inservice training and provided some of that support. In observation, leaders and teachers gained a powerful device for learning from and with each other.

2. Basic Acts of Leadership. Also as before, there appeared to be a few basic acts by which a school's leaders influence the school's norms of instruction, of civility, and of improvement. They describe a desired practice explicitly, clearly, and affirmatively, and call for the use of that practice when it applies. They enact or model the desired practice themselves, in situations analogous to the classroom (e.g., inservice training), or in demonstration teaching, or in the usual course of business. They reward the staff's use of a practice by praising them; by devoting more time and energy to them, their interests, and their needs; and by working to expand their opportunities and rewards. Less often, but importantly, leaders point out when a desired

practice could be used but is not, and sometimes take action against those who do not participate in using it. Finally, they defend the users of a practice against criticism and competing demands on time and energy.

In this study, leaders' providing specific material support for the use of a desired practice assumed greater importance than it had been attributed at the beginning. The most vigorous instructional leaders in these schools organized themselves, their offices, and the resources of the school specifically to meet the requirements of the practices which they espoused. If more teacher-made materials were called for, then the principal obtained a fast photocopier and assigned aides to run it. If refinement of classroom practices was called for, then specific training was secured and focused observation and feedback were provided. If teachers needed time to work together, the school's schedule was reorganized to provide that time. If need be, the principal's day and office were rearranged. By specific support, instructional leaders both demonstrated their serious intent and made what they were asking more feasible.

3. The Requirement of Reciprocity. By the acts of leadership, leaders first invoke and then must satisfy the stringent requirement of reciprocity which was described earlier in the relations of observers and teachers. That requirement appears to apply in many--perhaps most--exchanges between instructional leaders and followers, and so is restated here in more general terms:

o To lead instruction, the leader must assert the knowledge and skill needed to help a practitioner of a complex craft, and the teacher must defer, by some action, to the leader's assertion. The main question here is this: In what situations and by what actions can the leader attain, in the teacher's eyes, the necessary stature with regard to teaching?

o The leader must display the knowledge and skill which she asserts by attempting to participate more directly in instruction and teaching. And the teacher must respond to the leader's assertions, by trying some change in behavior, materials, role with students, or perspective on teaching. The main question here is, How do the leader and teacher achieve the shared language, shared understandings of teaching, and shared procedures which allow them to play their respective parts in the common venture?

o The leader's knowledge, skill, and performance as a leader must improve along with the knowledge, skill and performance of the teacher in the classroom, and by essentially the same means: talk about practices; observation of performance; working together on the necessary materials, procedures, and equipment; and learning from and with each other. The main question here is, How do

leaders and teachers become explicit and reflective about their occupational relations?

It appears that these stringent social requirements apply whether the prospective instructional leaders are principals, department heads, or teachers. The findings of this study suggest that teachers are needed to construct an adequate system of instructional leadership and support for teachers. They also suggest that teachers have no special sanction or dispensation to help or lead each other. Where principals, department heads, and teachers were compared systematically and concretely as observers, teachers in the study schools uniformly granted greater latitude to department heads or to administrators than to their peers. In the absence of strong norms of collegiality and peer leadership, some authority or responsibility may be needed to initiate a closer and more supportive look at teaching practices.

While the technical demands of instructional leadership are substantial, the literature provides many well-organized possibilities. The small-scale social and organizational aspects of the problem need equal attention. The question is how schools can be organized, and how prospective instructional leaders and teachers can be helped to meet, the requirement of reciprocity.

B. Organizing for Instructional Improvement.

In the histories of the two schools with most active instructional leadership, there appears a sequence of conditions, initiatives, and performances by which the requirements of reciprocity were met, effective instructional leadership was organized, and norms of collegiality and continuous improvement were forged. This sequence appears to be feasible in a wide range of conditions. It is described here as a set of propositions.

1. Focus: Shared Training or Study. Norms of instructional improvement and leadership are more likely to form when teachers, coaches, and supervisors join in training, or in similarly focused interaction, which is designed to have several specific functions. The first is to provide common understandings of teaching and common language for describing and analyzing it. The second is to forge shared aims for improving practice, including specific provisional agreements about desired or promising teaching practices, on which joint effort will be based. The third is to negotiate and plan the close support which is needed to apply the training. The last is to provide an occasion in which prospective instructional leaders--including teachers--can achieve in teachers' presence the knowledge, skill, and virtue which they must assert in order to lead.

Training can be designed to address each of these functions specifically. A question for schools and particularly for districts is whether they provide enough well-designed training to render the outcomes plausible.

2. Building on Shared Experience. Effective norms of instructional leadership and improvement are more likely to form when the shared training or study is the direct basis for subsequent interaction. In talking about teaching, or observing, or working together on plans and materials, the participants can refer to the common experience as a source of information, guidance, or justification. Otherwise, they must assert their separate personal experiences. These may be valuable, but are less likely to be adequate bases for reciprocal persuasion and mutual action. As the common training provides grounds for interaction, it also prepares the participants to play their parts. That is, by virtue of shared experience, they are more likely to perform appropriately and usefully in each other's estimate.

3. Negotiation and Planning. Effective norms of instructional improvement and leadership are more likely to form when they are made the explicit subjects of discussion, analysis, and improvement. Coaching, for example, is more likely to emerge when coaching procedures are negotiated in detail so that coaches and the persons they coach can trust their agreements, as distinct from their good intentions. The latter provide little specific guidance for behavior in mastering a new form of occupational exchange. There are models and procedures to draw on; districts could undertake to make them accessible to faculties.

4. Treating Practices As Tools. Effective norms of instructional improvement and leadership are more likely to form when both teaching practices and improvement practices are mutually understood to be tools, separate from their users, to be examined and refined accordingly. In coaching, describing a lesson before analyzing it helps to objectify the lesson, to create some distance between the teaching and the teacher. This helps the teacher to join in an examination, not of his person, but of some practices which he happens to have used in the lesson. When the members of a school know that they all regard both teaching practices and improvement practices as tools, they are freer to initiate discussions of--and refinements of--those tools.

The stance that practices are tools must be confirmed in behavior. Instructional leaders and teachers must learn to speak of practices and their consequences rather than of persons and their competence. Shared understandings and language from common training will help them to do so. This is also a matter of organizational tone; if district officials want principals to

speak to teachers of practices and consequences, they can speak to principals in that fashion.

5. Reorganization. The most active instructional leaders changed their habits, their knowledge and skills, and their offices. Neither had substantial experience in instructional leadership before undertaking their initiatives. Both came to the view that they should focus their efforts on instruction well before they learned how to do that skillfully. Both devoted considerable time and effort to learning about teaching, reading in the literature, attending training and conferences, and honing their skills as trainers, observers, and consultants for their teachers. Both consciously changed their habits as principals in order to take initiative in instruction. Both reorganized their offices, engaged their assistant principals fully in their efforts, and changed routines in which they were involved.

Something's got to give. Something did. Other matters were delegated, done later, done late, or ignored. That is the practical meaning of giving a high priority to instruction. If principals are to increase substantially their attention to instruction, they will need help from their districts in modifying their job descriptions, their priorities, their routines and their offices. There is no way to do that without modifying district office expectations, routines, and arrangements at the same time.

Like teaching, instructional leadership is a complex performance. Training, consultation, and coaching for instructional leaders is in order. Instructional leaders can get from teachers a part of the feedback they need to refine their performance. If district administrators want instructional leadership in the district's schools, they should be prepared to provide similar support.

6. Time and Tenacity. Effective norms of instructional improvement and leadership prescribe practices which are often new and disconcerting. Time and tenacity will be needed to master knowledge, skill, and perspectives; to negotiate and confirm understandings and procedures, and to achieve visible benefit. While gains such as intellectual stimulation may come earlier, benefits such as improved student performance will take more time. Where there are no immediate models for leadership and cooperation, it will be difficult to imagine that new kinds of occupational exchanges can be arranged or that they will pay off. In the schools with more vigorous instructional leadership, the participants recited histories of development stretching back several years. It will help to agree, at the beginning, that persistence and tolerance will be needed. Those agreements will be easier to make if a faculty can count on reasonable stability in the staffing of the school and in the policy and approach of the district.

7. Confirming Benefit. Norms of instructional improvement and leadership are more likely to form and to endure when the practices they prescribe are found to be useful and satisfying in clear and practical ways. Becoming comfortable or feeling secure in a practice such as coaching is not enough. Coaching as a comfortable hobby will not compete against other demands on a faculty's time and energy. It must pay off. In the two schools where the administrators and faculty focused on teaching, their efforts had paid off, in their views, in a variety of ways. These included the intellectual stimulation in examining one's work more closely, the sense of increased facility with selected parts of the teaching repertoire, increased recognition from colleagues whose judgement was respected, and, in time, visible changes in the performance (including deportment) of students. A dramatic decline in disciplinary referrals both repaid a principal's work with a math faculty and freed more of that principal's time to work with teachers. Greater cooperation and responsibility by students repaid teachers' efforts to refine their classroom management and student grouping practices; they associated those gains with their administrators' coaching. An English department's efforts to reorganize its curriculum into smaller, clearer, and more carefully ordered segments paid off when more students were better prepared to succeed in each successive task; it was clear these results would not have been achieved without cooperation among the teachers and specific leadership and support by the department head and principal.

When new improvement practices such as coaching, or talking about teaching, or sharing the preparation of materials are focused sufficiently within a shared terrain provided by mutual training or study, it is easier to master the skills and procedures needed to attend to teaching together. Visible benefit is more likely. The participants are more likely to treat the talking or observing or planning as occupational tools, because they pay off. The task for schools and for districts is to design initiatives which both are feasible in current circumstances and are likely, over a reasonable period, to produce enough visible benefit to be worth the trouble.

The question of benefit returns us to the starting point. The new call for instructional leadership necessarily contains the proposition that schools can succeed, in their complex and often turbulent environments, principally by close attention to instruction, particularly to teaching in the classroom. In doing so, they would become more tightly coupled in regard to their main business. That productive ethic, or ethos, which has been found in some unusually effective schools would be constructed more surely in others.

In this study, two schools in eight make that prospect plausible. Similarities in expectations for professional work in

all the schools buttress the case. These schools also show that the claim for instructional leadership is put to the test in every initiative. Much as a productive ethos in a school is composed of many specific practices of civility, of instruction, and of improvement, progress toward instructional leadership is made by mastering a few of its procedures, skills, and requirements at a time. No step can transform the school; each step must make enough difference to justify the next one.

Chapter 1
THEORY AND ACTION
A Study of Instructional Leadership

The present public interest in schools and their improvement is fueled by concerns as global as assuring America's place in the world economy, as immediate as aspiration for one's own child, as diffuse as fear that children will not survive their youth, and as particular as dissatisfaction with last year's math and reading scores. Both a common sense of responsibility and observations from research recommend improvement in management and leadership as an important path to the improvement of schools.

However, the systematic study of schools and their leadership is not far advanced. Descriptions of practice are thin and uneven. The maps of associations between discrete practices and particular outcomes is mostly blank. Those maps seldom take systematic account of the probable interactions among the practices, and of the practices with the settings in which they are employed. The situation calls for caution in prescription, energetic study of school leadership, and recognition of its purposes.

I. LEADERSHIP AND THE CHARACTER OF SCHOOLS

Society necessarily must be concerned simultaneously with students' attendance, deportment, observance of the law, interest in truth, joy and confidence in learning, and mastery of academic and practical knowledge and skills. All are important goals for schools and their leaders. These complex and particular objectives of schools might or might not warrant comparison of leadership in schools with leadership of other institutions. Certainly, they admit no simple standards for the performance of school personnel.

Schools are no simpler than the results asked of them. Each school has a characteristic educational "ethos," a complex character comprising its physical and organizational arrangements and especially the prevailing perspectives and practices of its staff. In conjunction with other factors such as individual students' histories and the balance of characteristics of the student body as a whole, the school's ethos defines students' experience of the school and thus influences their mastery of school subjects, their stance and behavior toward learning and themselves as learners, and their conduct as citizens of the school and community (Rutter et al., 1979).

If the school is simply a collection of one-room schoolhouses, teaching is a static enterprise directed to a constant subject matter, and schooling is independent from society, then the school is little more than a physical and administrative convenience. Neither its leadership nor the relations among its staff compel interest. If the school is a production facility which employs emerging technology to turn out a competent product for an information society's changing market in human resources, then the school's organization becomes more important. It is the means for systematic improvement of its own facilities, staff, and outcomes. The school's leaders become more interesting--as managers of a complex and subtle system of production. Both the school and its leaders invite comparison with other facilities for production.

But if the school is a place that students pass through on the way to life, and a place where they must live for some long time, then the school's character as an example of society is as important as what it explicitly teaches about society. The school's administrative, technical, and social aspects must be combined efficiently, but also humanely and constitutionally. Both the school's organization for dealing with students and the school's organization for improvement are vital. The demands on the school's leaders escalate accordingly, and in kind.

While the school's educational ethos is a distinct system or pattern of interaction, it also is an open system, influencing and influenced by its environment. It is reasonable for communities to seek in their schools reflections of themselves; for district officers to ask for change or to seek a degree of predictability, uniformity, and responsiveness from all schools in the district; for parents to seek special attention for their children; for students to seek companionship and excitement with their peers; and for teachers to seek decent pay and working conditions. One might give some moral or practical order to these demands on the school, but none of them can be ignored. So the school's social, bureaucratic, demographic, and economic environment often is turbulent. Depending on the circumstances, it may take just as much time, skill, energy, and will to avoid one school's getting worse as it does to make another school better. There may be little reason to distinguish between schools' maintenance and improvement.

II. INSTRUCTIONAL LEADERSHIP.

"Educational leadership" of a school here refers to those initiatives which attempt or tend to preserve or produce a favorable educational ethos in the school. It is the pattern of action by which the school's actual condition and results are compared with an array of desired conditions and results, and by which more favorable comparisons are sought. "Instructional leadership" here is the branch of educational leadership which addresses curriculum and teaching: what is taught, how it is taught, and how the students are organized for

learning. The central but not sole object of instructional leadership is the behavior of teachers toward subject matters, toward students and their parents, and toward each other in regard to teaching.

A. Sources of Leadership.

Instructional leadership is an important responsibility, but is not the sole province of a school's principal. Others may and do provide leadership; improvement of schools may depend on extensive leadership by others than the principal. Thus, a principal may be said to have three main options for assuring that instructional leadership is exerted in a school. The principal can import leadership, as by bringing in district supervisors or specialists and other trainers and consultants. The principal can supply leadership directly, as in supervising and evaluating teachers, in leading faculty working groups, or in supplying materials necessary for an innovation. Or the principal can organize the staff to provide leadership for each other, as in cultivating department heads as leaders, organizing peer coaching among teachers, or engaging staff in curricular reform. Here, the pattern of colleagial interaction in the staff as a whole becomes an explicit object of leadership.

B. Standing Questions About School Leadership.

While those who have reviewed literature on school leadership, school improvement, and the principal take different stances about the desirability, possibility, and character of instructional leadership by the principal, they are more constant in posing two questions, not just about instructional leadership, but about the principalship in general.

First, What do principals actually do, day to day and minute by minute? This question is a call for description. The growing descriptions of principals' activities still leave far too many questions unanswered, e.g., how do principals' behavior and the broader pattern of school leadership vary by grade level and size of the school?

Second, If the behavior of principals does influence the practices of schools and thus affect the cognitive, affective, and social results for students, by what specific means is this influence exerted? This question is a call for theory, a request not only to describe how the leader behaves but also to say why that behavior affects others. It is plausible, for example, that a principal's handling of students in disciplinary cases could directly affect the students dealt with and, by way of storytelling among students, indirectly affect many students' perceptions of discipline in the school. Showing how the principal's conduct of discipline could affect teachers' conduct of discipline and outcomes for students is likely to require longer and more complex arguments. Similarly, a principal might exert direct influence on the assignment of students to classes, but the effects of those assignments

will be mediated by the practices of teachers to whom the students are assigned.

If instructional leadership is dealt with in close connection to instruction, then both the descriptions and the theories must deal with considerable complexity.

III. A STUDY OF EIGHT SECONDARY SCHOOLS.

This study examined instructional leadership in eight diverse secondary schools in four urban, suburban, and small-city school districts in one western state. The schools were recruited by way of conversations first with district officials and then with principals. The aim was to gain access to a set of schools which provided both variety in instructional leadership and diversity in school size, organization, grade level, faculty and student characteristics, and circumstances. That aim was achieved. Two junior high schools and six high schools eventually participated in the study.

A. Case Studies in Five Schools.

In the first year of the project, case studies were made in five schools in two districts. Interviews with principals, assistant principals, and some departments heads and teachers were taped and transcribed for analysis. The researchers made field notes on a continuing conversation about school improvement and leadership between the school's staff and the researchers over the several months in which data were collected in the five schools.

Principals were shadowed by researchers as they went about their work. Researchers observed meetings, such as discussions of teachers' evaluations, which ordinarily would have been closed to all but the immediately concerned participants. The researchers also observed faculty and department meetings, teachers' lounges and preparation rooms, and other situations in which the staff commonly did its business.

Lists of activities which could be construed as leadership functions in the school were placed on three-by-five cards, one activity per card, for use in a "Q-sort" prodedure employed with principals and some department heads. Each respondent was asked to sort the cards in several ways to indicate whether an activity was part of the respondent's work, whether it was an important part of that work, whether it was a part of another's work, whether the respondent's participation in that activity would be tolerated or approved by his colleagues, and so on. The Q-sort procedure permitted tabulation of results and stimulated discussion between the respondent and researcher as the sorting was done.

The main aim of the first year's work was to assemble a detailed account from the respondents' and researchers' points of view of the range of perspectives, approaches, practices, and habits of instructional leadership in each school.

B. Surveys in Eight Schools.

In the second year of the study, a third school in one of the two original districts and one school in each of two other districts were added to the study. The study was narrowed to leadership practices and colleagial interactions which appeared to define and distinguish the schools and which appeared relevant to leadership in many schools. The observation and evaluation of teaching and the conduct of training were prominent among these practices. With the extensive assistance and generous responses of their staffs, these practices were the subjects of two surveys of all teachers, department heads, and administrators in each school. The first survey was completed in all eight schools with return rates ranging in six schools from 77-99% and in two schools from 50-60%. The second survey was completed in six schools with return rates ranging from 44% to 99%.

Each of the surveys presented a series of hypothetical situations of observation and evaluation of teachers, or of decisions about training, or of day-to-day work of the members of a staff. With each situation were presented options for behavior by a principal, a department head, or a teacher in that situation. The options for behavior were chosen to represent rough dimensions of interaction, such as the duration of observations of a teacher or initiatives on the part of an informally recognized master teacher. Respondents were asked to say how much they would approve or disapprove of each option for situated behavior if it occurred in their school, and they were asked to report whether or how often the options actually were employed in their school. The aims were to describe the actual distribution of the practices in the participating schools and to assess the potential responses of the staffs if such practices were initiated where they did not then occur.

In addition, respondents were asked to assess the quality and utility of observation of teachers, evaluation of teachers, and training in their school. The study could not address but did keep in mind the potentially long chain of inference from leadership to student outcomes. Finally, respondents were asked to characterize their school's and their own efficacy relative to some other influences on students' achievement and deportment.

The analysis of survey data compared both respondent groups and the actors who appeared in the survey questions. Administrators, department heads, and teachers were compared as potential observers and evaluators of teachers. Departments were compared as nominal groups which might agree internally and differ from other departments in their views of a particular matter. The analysis has retained descriptive

detail. Beyond mean responses to items, little use has been made of summary statistics.

IV. KNOWLEDGE OF ACTION, KNOWLEDGE IN ACTION.

The study is intended to be practical, so it resorts to theory. That is done, it is hoped, with due regard for differences in the views and circumstances of researchers and of leaders such as principals (Barth and Deal, 1982), and for the different ways in which they may handle their theories about schools and leadership.

A. Just Theory and Just Common Sense.

Researchers tend to organize their assumptions, generalizations, and propositions in their writings. The evolving product is examined by readers and tested against evidence. This product--"theory" and "findings"--tends to gain focus and clarity at the expense of breadth or comprehension, to gain general application at the expense of specific application, and to gain the support of systematic evidence at the cost of openness to practitioners. Thus, principals may refer to researchers' products as "Just Theory," as in the expression, "That's Just Theory; let's get down to practical matters."

Principals tend to organize their assumptions, generalizations, and propositions in their own behavior. This evolving product is examined by other actors in and about the school and is tested against the demands of many hectic days. It often is called "experience," "judgement," or "Just Common Sense," as in the expression, "Yes, this works; it's Just Common Sense." This product's breadth, specific application, and experiential support tend to be gained at the expense of clarity, general application, and persuasiveness with others who are differently situated. So one principal may claim that another principal's methods are not applicable to her different circumstances. And researchers may refer to principals' intellectual product as "intuition," "habit," or "isolated practitioner accounts." Knowledge organized in writing and knowledge organized in behavior both are valuable currency, but they are not readily exchanged.

B. Useful Varieties of Theory.

While these differences between knowledge of action and knowledge in action may be important, it is easy to overstate them. Principals probably act "intuitively"--without conscious thought--at about the same rate that researchers conform strictly to "scientific method." Their usual performances depart from these extremes, and are similar in kind.

Just Theory and Just Common Sense alike are useful varieties of theory. They serve the same function in their respective domains. Each

makes it possible to proceed through a day or a month without reconsidering each potentially salient aspect of each possibly consequential decision. Each stores information in a form more or less useful in the undertaking at hand. Each may facilitate a systematic increase in that knowledge, or be a barrier to such increase. Each is useful, and each is an accomplishment of some magnitude. Barth and Deal (1982) observe that the writing of principals usually is less proficient and polished than the writing of researchers. That is half a report. Knowledge in action should not be judged only by the standards pertaining to knowledge of action. A more complete account also would have compared researchers' and principals' management of schools.

Further, Just Theory and Just Common Sense have complementary virtues and limits. Breadth and clarity may be gained at some cost to each other, but both are desirable in an understanding of leadership. The utility of an assumption or proposition is likely to depend on both its general and its specific application. Generalizations which can claim both the support of systematic evidence and the persuasiveness of experience are much needed. These products are not within reach either of practitioners or of researchers alone. There is need for alliances of the sort called for by Barth and Deal and by others. Those alliances will require deliberate effort to translate between and to join Just Theory and Just Common Sense. And they will require modesty; powerful theories of schooling and leadership are unlikely to emerge whole or quickly. One preliminary task is to sort out the possibilities.

C. Views of Schools and Leadership.

What one makes of school leadership may be affected by one's image of the school. If the school is seen as a collection of persons, one may focus on their characteristics, thoughts, feelings, and individual behavior, and on leaders' handling of these. If the school is seen as a formal organization, one may concentrate on such matters as job descriptions, lines of authority, contracts, or written policies and procedures, and on leaders' use of them. If one sees the school in terms of its economy, then leaders' distribution of resources to activities and purposes comes to the fore. If time is the vital resource, then questions of its use gain prominence. If the school is an arena for disparate and potentially contending interests, leadership may be seen mostly as a political matter of organizing these forces, reconciling them, or playing them off against each other. If the school is seen as a culture, one attends to its values, symbols, myths, and rituals and to their embodiment, use, and cultivation by leaders.

Views of school leadership are as various as views of schools; Chapter 2 describes some issues and images to be found in research on the principalship. From many points of view, instructional leadership is complex in its own right; neither teaching and learning nor the management of teaching and learning nor the improvement of teaching and

learning are simple pursuits. Moreover, instructional leadership is contingent on a variety of factors. Not the least of these is the array of demands for attention to matters other than instruction. Finally, instructional leadership often is mediated by yet other factors. The image of a principal's simply "telling" a teacher to improve and of the teacher's then improving is not persuasive. Their prior relations, what is told, the manner of telling, and other matters are likely to govern the principal's influence with the teacher. In leadership, as in other aspects of schools, it all depends.

But it cannot all be described or considered at once. The principal in acting and the researcher in reporting provisionally ignore a great deal that could be relevant to the matter at hand. Each tries to take a part of the matter, and a way of viewing it, which will be useful. Both can be more informative to others if they define that portion of complex events which they address, make explicit the point of view they apply, and do so with due regard for the matters and viewpoints which, for the moment, they set aside.

D. The School As An Informal Social Organization.

For the moment, this study sets aside many relevant external factors--district policies, teacher contracts, state laws, and community demands--in order to give more attention to aspects of leadership founded within the individual school. Also, the study is less concerned with the traits, perspectives, and separate behavior of individual participants than with their interaction and with the understandings they share. Throughout, this study focuses on the informal social organization of the school: specific patterns of daily interaction and mutual understanding among the staff regarding appropriate and efficient ways to behave.

To concentrate on informal organization is to take two points of view simultaneously. From one point of view, instructional leadership is defined by a set of expectations or norms--an apparently static set of informal rules for conduct. From the other point of view, instructional leadership is a process of interaction, which is shaped by norms but also shapes them in time. In this view, the informal organization of the school is the meeting and melding place of state and federal laws for schooling, of the school district and its policies, of professional organizations and their interests, of the school's community and student body, and of the skills, knowledge, and other traits of the principals and staff. When any of these factors bears heavily on instructional leadership, that influence should appear in the informal expectations and daily activity of the school's participants. By concentrating on the informal organization, it should be possible to give a coherent account of action and influence, in context and in terms close to what the participants actually do. Chapter 3 in this volume describes schools as informal social organizations and suggests the relevance of that point of view to issues of school leadership and cooperation for improvement.

As an informal social organization, the school often controls some aspects of behavior, but it also provides the school's participants both with freedom of individual action and with opportunities to use their positions to influence others' behavior and the conduct of the school's business. Leadership, then, is seen as initiative: the use of freedom and opportunity to influence both the educational ethos of the school and the school's arrangements for improving.

V. FOCUS OF THE STUDY AND REPORT.

In an earlier study of staff development and staff interaction in six schools, Little (1981) concluded that some common and potent initiatives are (1) to describe and call for a desired practice, (2) to enact or model that practice or its analogs, (3) to sanction others according to their use of the practice, and (4) to defend the practice and its practitioners from internal and external attack. The present study sought descriptions of initiative of those kinds.

Instructional leadership may address directly what is taught, how, and with what organization of the students, and thus has a broad range of possible objects. On the grounds that students' experience of the school's instruction is defined primarily by what happens in classes and that the leadership of teaching is a particularly demanding enterprise requiring attention, the study has concentrated on instances of leadership and colleagial interaction which address teachers' behavior in classrooms.

Also, leadership may address instruction indirectly, through attention to the patterns of faculty interaction regarding instruction and its improvement. In line with contemporary interests in clinical supervision, colleagial teaming among teachers, and improvement of training, Little (1981) concluded that observing and being observed at work in the classroom, learning from and with each other in training and other group settings, sharing the preparation of materials, and talking about teaching in these and other contexts provided substantial opportunities for a faculty to advance together. Those categories of collective improvement complete the definition of the present study's domain. Case study and survey data bearing on those opportunities are reported in Chapters 4, 5, and 6.

Throughout, the aspiration is to draw Just Theory and Just Common Sense a bit closer together.

Chapter 2
VIEWS OF INSTRUCTIONAL LEADERSHIP
A Review of Literature on Principals

Several reviews of literature on the principalship provide points of view which can help to place this study in context and to interpret its findings (Barth and Deal, 1982; Bossert et al., 1981; Crowson and Morris, 1982; Greenfield, 1982; Leithwood and Montgomery, 1982; Persell, Cookson and Lyons, 1982). The chapter relates those views to this study's interest in instructional leadership.

I. THE NEW CALL FOR INSTRUCTIONAL LEADERSHIP.

As it is being considered today, instructional leadership is essentially a new expectation produced by a body of research and a strain of public opinion which have emerged in the past fifteen years or so. If the short eras of concern in education can be dated from their earliest often-cited works, then the current era of instructional leadership is probably no older than a sixth grader.

In this era, instructional leadership calls for the deliberate application of research literature in a systematic and accountable fashion, if not in a scientific fashion. While instructional leaders are seen not as researchers or program developers but as users of research and program development, the careful and effective use of research (as distinct from *a priori* prescriptions) is a new and substantial expectation.

As it has emerged in connection with the effective schools research, instructional leadership suggests an order of priorities in which academic achievement, especially in basic skill areas, precedes all or most other concerns in the school, and in which close attention to instruction is the primary means by which a school meets the various demands upon it.

Instructional leadership suggests close involvement among administrators and teachers in classrooms, e.g. clinical supervision or peer coaching among teachers, on the basis of the literature on schools and teaching. In addition to teaching or in addition to other aspects of administration, teachers and principals would spend considerable time working together on specific matters of instructional practice.

Instructional leadership in the senses given is not common practice either among principals or among teachers. Teachers tend

to work in isolation most of the time. Principals devote most of their attention to other matters. Still, it has long been said that principals should be concerned with teaching and learning. That teachers should goes without saying. So the new call for instructional leadership tends to imply that principals or teachers have in some fashion failed. A principal or teacher who is summing up a career upon retirement this year might well retort, however, that she can account for the time. We might agree readily, but perhaps should listen to part of the list so as to give the reply its proper weight.

There have been a baby boom, a baby bust, an East-West population shift, a North-South population shift, suburbanization and now gentrification, which translates to dealing with empty schools, schools full to bursting, temporary buildings, closed off corridors, rapid hirings, and abrupt layoffs.

There have been Sputnik, the ideal of the comprehensive high school, a large increase in the number of high school students aspiring to college educations, a variety of state and federal initiatives in education, and a continuing debate about equity and excellence in education, all imposing a constant tension between more of different kinds of instruction or more of the same kinds of instruction.

There have been unionization of teachers, the rise of achievement tests, accountability committees, local control debates, increasing public skepticism toward public institutions, and an apparent "tax revolt", all affecting the level of resources and the degree and type of control of them as well as the status of the occupations in education.

There have been the banning of school prayers; the introduction of due process in disciplinary proceedings with students; quarrels over library books, textbooks, and student newspapers; a "sexual revolution"; and debates over or laws concerning evolution theory and creationism.

There have been desegregation, integration, busing, affirmative action, bilingual/ESL instruction, Title IX, and other remedies for bias by race, native language, and sex.

There have been television; two cars in many pots; pot in many cars; one parent in many households; two parents at work; assassinations; short hair, long hair, orange hair, and short hair; wars by various names; test-tube babies; Bill Haley and the Comets, the Beatles, the Stones, and the Police; genetic engineering; Mutual Assured Destruction; American Bandstand and The Dukes of Hazard; oil prices, shortages, allocations, and slicks; asbestos; personal calculators and personal computers. Such matters were noticed in schools. Some of them may be said to have happened in schools.

Few teachers or administrators have been idle in recent decades. If they have not devoted a large share of their time and attention to specific matters of instruction, that is understandable. In the face of the demands placed on schools deliberately or incidentally to broader social change, one may suspect that considerable energy in many schools has been devoted to not getting worse. It would not be surprising if attempts to protect instruction have been more common than attempts to study or advance it. And it would not be surprising if the present habits and routines of principals and faculties reflected those efforts.

In the present call for instructional leadership, principals and teachers face a new and substantial escalation in expectations, in an environment of mounting scientific and political interest in the quality and qualities of teaching. Reasonable speculation includes the prospect that schools will succeed in future by focusing on their instructional, civil, and improvement practices. From the point of view of the principals and teachers who experience it, that shift may amount to a transformation.

II. WHO SHOULD LEAD INSTRUCTION?

If instruction is to be led more actively and specifically, who should lead it? We have now a contest for control of schools, teachers, and teaching. Both school administrators and teachers' organizations have laid claims. Parents have become more assertive in some places. Claims to leadership have been advanced by researchers, program developers, and trainers; colleges for teacher education; departments of education; governors; and legislators. All of these parties claim some responsibility to, or ability to satisfy, teachers, students, the public, and the future. Studies of instructional leadership may be relevant to, or affected by, those competing claims.

This study focused on principals and department heads, and in some cases compared instructional leadership by principals, by department heads, and by teachers. To that extent, it was oriented to the formal and general-purpose administrative hierarchies of the schools. The study contemplated no large changes in that structure. At the same time, it concentrated on the informal social organization of the school, where authority plays a smaller part. It was expected that differences in the study schools' informal arrangements might suggest the possibility of substantial changes in that area.

More specifically, it is assumed that school administrators probably will play central parts in any progression toward closer attention to instruction. While the principal is not the sole source of leadership in the school, it can be claimed reasonably that integrated and effective patterns of instructional leadership in the school will coalesce around the principal. No other actor in the school has the same broad responsibility for the character, coordination, and success of the school as a whole. Others who bear similar responsibility may be said to be distant from the school in that their rates of interaction with persons in the school are relatively low; their opportunities to exert specific influence on instruction are accordingly limited. The character of the office and the relative isolation of a school from the district gives the principal both a unique responsibility for improvement and a unique right and opportunity to initiate action toward improvement.

Substantial instructional improvement is likely to require the coordination of supervision, evaluation, staff development, curriculum development and other relevant resources (Goldsberry, 1984). It is doubtful that any other person in or outside of the school is in a similar position to seek such coordination. By virtue of this position, the principal can request others to provide leadership, can delegate tasks of leadership, and has the opportunity to model the provision of that leadership.

Finally, it seems unlikely that any other party from within or outside the school will exert strong, consistent, and productive instructional leadership in the face of the principal's indifference to improvement or opposition to alternative leadership. Other leadership is likely to require at least the tolerance, but more likely the active and direct support, of the principal.

At the same time, instructional leadership is not the sole province of the principal. Department heads and grade-level leaders may have much to contribute, and their initiative may be necessary in secondary schools or larger schools. Particularly when it is considered that effective instructional leadership may be an intensive or time-consuming activity, leadership by teachers should remain among the possibilities. Put another way, it is here assumed that a school is rich in potential leaders, and that the question is how that leadership comes to be organized.

Other sources and forms of leadership will be treated here as parts of a principal's repertoire of options for assuring that a school is well and actively led. This approach does not diminish the responsibility, or possibility, or potential utility of leadership by others. Rather the reverse. It does contemplate a structure of leadership in which the principal's option and responsibility is to encourage, support, and coordinate the several possibilities.

III. ISSUES AND IMAGES OF LEADERSHIP.

The reviews of literature which have been relied on here present diverse images of leadership and instructional leadership by principals. In one, the principal attends to discipline and otherwise buffers teaching from disruption. In another, the principal preserves the school's myths about itself. In another, the principal works closely with teachers in classrooms. Each image describes some characteristic actions of the principal, along with their origins and their objects or aims. Each image tends also to provide an image of the school, the modes of influence it affords a leader, and the conditions or limits it places on the leader's actions. Woven through these images is a set of issues or problems relevant to the selection but particularly to the training and conduct of leaders.

A. Complexity and Ambiguity.

One constant refrain is that leadership of schools is both complex and ambiguous. Shaping an organizational perspective on the roles of the principal and teachers, Sarason (1971) observes:

> The first point emphasized is the complexity of each role--its demands, built-in conflicts, relationship to other types of roles, and relationship to the overall system. Attention to this point is independent of considerations of personality, which, although of obvious importance, too often obscure the nature of the role.

Those who work in the school must attend to a variety of goals or values which are not necessarily consistent in their demands on behavior, and must attend to a variety of groups and persons who are not necessarily (and often are not) agreed either in the content or the intensity of their expectations. Further, the business of schooling is technically complex and ambiguous; it is not clear how the school may achieve productive calm, assure safety of those who attend, maintain morale in a faculty, or help students to learn all that they could.

As the nominal leader with broadest responsiblity for an organization which is loosely tied to its central office, the principal faces as great complexity and ambiguity as any participant in the school, and is not fully free to ignore any of it. Further, it is hard to know what combination of goals, activities, and persons should be dealt with to accomplish what combination of results. Almost uniformly, the principal's day is described as a constant stream of short and diverse initiatives and reactions, most involving people. In the space of thirty minutes, the principal gives some explanation to an upset parent, admonishes a student, tours a wing of the school to see that all

is calm, pops into a class to see how a new teacher is getting on, signs some purchase orders, calls the maintenance department about the dying grass or the fitful boiler, and puts in a few minutes on a report.

Over longer spans of time, the events can be seen as streams: students to discipline, parents to inform or satisfy, schedules to be constructed, building and grounds to be tended, extracurricular events to be attended, meetings to call or attend, teachers to advise or help, and--typically for a small proportion of the principal's time--instruction to be managed. One image of the principal is that of factotum: an employee of diverse duties requiring equally diverse talents, neither of which appear in the job description (see Figure 2-1).

The complexity of events is matched by the complexity of constituencies in and about the school. As nominal head of a discrete organization and distinct public facility, and as a conduit or gatekeeper for many kinds of business, the principal tends to draw the attention of district officials, of parents and other community members, of teachers and other staff, and of students. Their demands upon or interests in the school--and therefore the principal--need not be and often are not consistent. While teachers are in the school to serve, the school is also their workplace, livelihood, and source of perquisites or amenities. Students may differ; this is but one source of differences in their parents' expectations for the school. District officials may make demands or requests which are inconsistent, or at least appear to be inconsistent, with important realities in the school. In practice, all these constituencies must be dealt with, and their interests reconciled or traded off in some fashion. It cannot be clear what combination of satisfaction for which groups will preserve the balance of the school or the tenure of the principal.

It appears that the nature and extent of a principal's instructional leadership practices may prove a function not only of the diversity and expectations for the principal's role, but also of the relative balance among those functions as they are achieved in practice. Despite exhortations to principals to assume a stance of instructional leadership and to address issues of school improvement, the greatest rewards may attach to the accomplishment of managerial obligations. In a study of the formal expectations of the principalship reflected in written job descriptions, Pohland and Higbie (1979) found that only 14 percent of the job description entries could be classified as instructional leadership. Crowson and Morris (1982) cite their own findings and those of Martin and Willower (1981) to the same effect. Further, they report that the heavy emphasis placed on managerial functions has remained stable over the past century. In a handbook of advice to principals, Wey (1966) characterizes the "supervision of instruction" as the principal's "most

Figure 2-1

IMAGE OF LEADERSHIP*: FACTOTUM. The principal is an employee of diverse duties. To make ends meet (or not meet), the principal sometimes resorts to:

- o solving problems created solely by words, or creating solutions to problems solely by words.
- o making others' performance of their duties more attractive to them.
- o persuading victims to blame themselves.
- o placing awkward facts so that their heads don't show in the picture of the school.
- o causing persons to take an interest in other persons' complaints.
- o causing persons to lose interest in their own complaints.
- o hearing what was not said, or not hearing what was said.
- o recalling whose skeletons are in which closets.
- o acquiring necessities and amenities by non-standard means.
- o producing the appearance of being everywhere at all times.
- o tidying up after.

Origins of Principal's Action: A principled desire to get through the day.

Objects of Principal's Action: What's Happening? What's Next?

IMAGE OF THE SCHOOL: SUCH A PLACE. The school is a complex and fast-moving phenomenon which may be described or prescribed in diverse and even contradictory ways, to none of which it fully conforms, but which can function so long as the disparities do not become overwhelming.

Modes of Principal's Influence: These are as diverse as the principal's actions, but they often include the provision of meanings which others find pleasing, convenient, or unavoidable under the immediate circumstances.

Conditions and Limits of Action: "You can move all of the people some of the time, and some of the people all of the time, but . . ."

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* This is a partial portrait of a friend when he was a principal. The authors do not assert that it holds for many principals.

important responsibility," yet locates his description of those responsibilities in the eighth chapter of his book, after tips on conducting assemblies, maintaining community relations, and organizing a PTA, that is, attending to the school's constituencies.

In a second image, the principal is a boundary spanner or power broker, one who operates at the nexus of various and sometimes contradictory goals, demands, and expectations (see Figure 2-2). In an interpretation which extends the present straightforwardly to the future, there is little reason to expect that a principal could attend much to instruction. In an interpretation which allows for some transformation, the practical question is whether increased attention to instruction could reduce the school's complexity, reduce ambiguity about the path to results, and provide ways to satisfy the school's various constituencies.

B. Discretion and Influence.

In case studies of the past ten to fifteen years, the principal is described sometimes as a powerless figure caught in a web of forces beyond his control, and at other times as a powerful figure exerting considerable and pervasive influence in the school and its surroundings. At one extreme, principals are highly influential; they make schools what they are. At the other extreme, the principal operates at the focus of complex and often contradictory forces with which, within a narrow range of discretion, principals can do little more than cope.

By virtue of position, one argument goes, the principal has certain rights of initiative that make it possible to stimulate, sustain, or alter expectations for school program and practice in ways that others cannot. John Goodlad, reporting an experiment in which principals were coached in "change agent" or "instructional leadership" roles, reports that the principals of relatively successful schools were "very much at the heart of things" (1975). In his classic discussion of the "culture of the school," Sarason (1971) places substantial weight on the possibilities and limits of the principal's role.

Mary Haywood Metz (1978), adopting an organizational perspective to study work relationships in desegregated junior high schools, argues that those relationships could not be understood apart from consideration of authority relations between principal and teachers. The norms of interaction and interpretation invoked by principals in their daily interactions with teachers, she argues, shape teachers' expectations for work both in and out of the classroom. Noblit (1979) pursues a similar argument in his discussion of the norms of administrator-teacher

Figure 2-2

IMAGE OF LEADERSHIP: BOUNDARY SPANNER; POWER BROKER. The principal deals with and reconciles the interests of many persons, groups, and organizations who do or might influence the principal and the school. As a go-between or convenor, the principal sometimes:

- o explains why the school must do what it does or can't do what is asked of it.
- o asks for money, materials, time, support, or tolerance.
- o tells one party about the views and demands of another, or doesn't tell.
- o says how the school's staff should respond to external demands.
- o tries to bring interested parties together, or keep them apart.
- o invites external demands in order to strengthen her internal position.

Origins of Principal's Action:

- o differences in the views and demands of the various parties to the school.
- o disparities between the school's stated principles and its actual operations.
- o dependence on the resources, good will, support, or indifference of others.

Objects of Principal's Action: The knowledge, views, and behavior of the persons who can do most to help or harm the school or the principal.

IMAGE OF THE SCHOOL: A SHARED AND CONTESTED RESOURCE. Diverse persons, groups and organizations have equally diverse interests in the school for equally diverse reasons. They can help or harm the school and principal.

Some Modes of Principal's Influence: Use the differences, disparities, and dependencies, by:

- o acquiring more information and thus more influence than any other single party.
- o explaining interested parties to each other in ways favorable to the school.
- o arranging exchanges—performance for support, attention for silence.
- o negotiating alliances around different parties' shared interests.

Some Conditions and Limits of Action:

- o mutual action requires mutual benefits.
- o separated parties can ally against the go-between.
- o overcommitment to external dealings can compromise internal positions.
- o extreme differences between highly salient parties can immobilize the go-between.
- o dealing with diversity can be exhausting.

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*Greenfield, 1982; Morris et al., 1981.

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and administrator-student interaction in a desegregated high school. In that instance, a change in principals brought a describable shift in the norms of teacher influence and, Noblit argues, a consequent change in teachers' (and students') perceptions, feelings, and behavior. Consistent with Noblit's observation is Rist's (1978) description of the first year of desegregation in an urban elementary school, in which "the realities defined by (the principal) and the responses he encouraged came to constitute the sanctioned definition of the situation. "

That the principal's role is in some respect consequential has often been asserted in the course of studies of school-based change, ranging from the implementation of some specific classroom innovation (Gross, Giacquinta, and Bernstein, 1971; Fullan and Pomfret, 1977; Berman and McLaughlin, 1978) to schoolwide or districtwide involvement in extensive programs and educational and social change such as desegregation (Rist, 1978, 1979; Metz, 1978). Sarason (1971) claims that "any kind of system change puts (the principal) in the role of implementing the change in his school," and characterizes such a role as "crucial. " Similarly, Fullan and Pomfret (1977) report several studies of innovation in schools in which "the principal was cited as a key factor in school-based change. " The Rand Corporation "change agent" study (Berman and McLaughlin, 1978) has been described as "giving new meaning to the role of instructional leadership for school principals" (McLaughlin and Marsh, 1979).

Still, students of large-scale changes such as desegregation note that the principal's role in such circumstances may be rendered increasingly problematic as demands escalate and the latitude to act independently diminishes (Noblit, 1979; Rist, 1978). And researchers examining the sequence of innovation in schools observe that the direct influence of principals on teachers' classroom practices is uncertain (Berman and Pauly, 1975). Despite the persistent assertion that the principal is influential, the specific nature and extent of that influence has remained largely unexamined and unanalyzed.

Schiffer (1979) adds that the conflict between managerial and instructional leadership functions may be exacerbated by external circumstances and influences over which the principal has little control:

> One effect of (teacher contract) negotiations has been that the principal is more likely to feel a conflict between his managerial and educational leadership roles. Principals do not sit at the bargaining table. They are, therefore, in a position of having to implement and enforce policies and procedures they have had no part in devising, and with

which they may disagree. Because principals are expected to enforce management's prerogatives, they frequently find themselves in an adversary relationship with the teaching staff, a role quite different from the "facilitating supervisor" role they have traditionally held.

Finally, the principal has been characterized in previous research as the person "in the middle" (Wolcott, 1973) working to accommodate the interests, needs, demands, and influence of numerous groups: school board, district administrators, teachers, students, parents, and others. If Gross, Mason and McEachern's (1958) landmark study of the school superintendency can fairly be used as a basis for speculation about the principalship, one may argue that any assumption of consensus within or across groups is properly suspect. Support for instructional leadership cannot be assumed, but must be shown.

In a third image of the principal (see Figure 2-3), the difficulties of discretion and influence lead the principal to attend first to matters of order and appearance. In this image, the principal must labor (and well might fail) just to produce and preserve the the minimum characteristics of a school.

The principal may be the powerful and influential "key" to the shape of school life and the course of school change, or the relatively powerless go-between whose actions are shaped by others. There is little reason to suppose that either vision of the principal is incorrect or that they are indeed contradictory. Differences among individual principals, differences among the circumstances in which they operate, and differences in the historical reconciliation of forces on schools all might be sufficient to produce the different patterns which researchers have observed. A line of least resistance to prior observations would lead to an examination of the interaction between performance and circumstances.

In that region lies the informal organization of the school, where the view of principals as powerful and as powerless need not be contradictory and need not reflect different circumstances of principals studied. It is equally plausible that the different outcomes reflect different solutions to common circumstances. It is implausible that the school and its environment are both as complex as most accounts picture them and so integrated as to fix the principal in a consistent and specific set of binding expectations. More likely, the principal has considerable substantive and procedural discretion. Whether and how that discretion is used, and at what price, is another matter.

Further, the feeling and fact of powerlessness in specific principals are as plausibly explained by the absence of specific

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Figure 2-3

IMAGE OF LEADERSHIP*: BUILDING MANAGER; DISCIPLINARIAN. The principal provides a safe, clean, orderly environment for teaching and learning. The principal protects the school's building, grounds, resources, staff, students, and reputation, by:

- o assuring that the building and grounds are in good repair and appear well.
- o taking care of scheduling and paperwork, placing the least burden on the faculty.
- o monitoring behavior in the hallways, restrooms, lunchroom, and grounds.
- o hiring good teachers and coaches, and providing them what they need to work.
- o procuring needed materials and equipment, and cutting red tape.
- o organizing and attending the extracurricular program.
- o supporting special projects by students and staff.

Origins of Principal's Action:

- o The public, the district, the staff, and the principal all are moved by the most immediate and visible aspects of the school.
- o The principal's proficiency is demonstrated most visibly in the appearance of the school.
- o There is a minimum of safety and order without which the school cannot function.

Objects of Principal's Action:

- o risks and appearances
- o procedures and drills
- o minimum requirements and standards

IMAGE OF THE SCHOOL: A PUBLIC FACILITY, with schedules, budgets, clients, and liabilities, to be operated safely, efficiently, and legally.

Some Modes of Principal's Influence:

- o "Buffer the instructional core from disruptions."
- o Teachers and students require a minimum of material support.
- o Appearances can foster pride, morale, and cooperation.

Some Conditions and Limits of Action:

- o Federal and state law; district policy and procedures.
- o Collective bargaining agreements.
- o Budgets, access to resources.
- o Cooperation from the district's support departments.

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*Bossert et al.; 1981; Greenfield, 1982; Persell, Cookson, and Lyons, 1982.

support as by the presence of specific constraints. Morris et al. (1981) for example, describe how principals in one district were given both highly precise requirements as to the time that a teacher's evaluation must be submitted to the district office, but little advice as to the substantive criteria for the evaluation itself. The absence of substantive guidance could give the principals considerable influence regarding the criteria for teachers' performance or, in the face of strong resistance to their evaluations, leave them without district support for their actions. A principal might be constrained either by the knowledge that his superiors will not approve his action if he takes it or by doubt that they will support his action if it is contested.

While diverse demands and practical discretion might immobilize the principal, they might also be used (and played against each other) as sources of influence. Crowson and Morris (1982) provide an image of principals in urban schools as discretionary decisionmakers with considerable capacity to advance the aims of the district and the school (see Figure 2-4).

If one is to entertain the possibility of a substantial shift in the principal's attention to instruction, the practical question here is whether the principal's use of discretion (and perhaps district officers' support of that use) will produce sufficient gains to sustain the principal's position relative to the istrict and to sustain the district officers relative to problems which may arise as a result of the principal's action. The informal rule "don't send trouble upstairs" might become, "if you send trouble upstairs, also send something which is worth it."

C. The Objects of Leadership

As was suggested earlier, the new call for instructional leadership proposes that school leaders build more effective schools by making instruction the primary object of their attention. The school meets the various demands upon it primarily by teaching well, and the principal is a central figure in this enterprise.

The issues and images of leadership considered so far provide counterarguments. Instruction is but one of many important functions of the school to which the principal must attend. The school and principal must satisfy a variety of constituencies; instruction is not uniformly at the top of their lists of demands and requests. Whatever its instructional purposes, the school is also a public facility which the principal must operate safely, efficiently, legally, and cleanly. Whatever its professed goals, the school also has corporate goals of dealing with uncertainty in its environment, maintaining its

Figure 2-4

IMAGE OF LEADERSHIP*: DISCRETIONARY DECISIONMAKER. The principal employs considerable substantive and procedural discretion to guide the school and its participants through the diverse and conflicting forces which operate within and upon it. The principal typically does this by:

- stirring and stabilizing the school, preserving balance.
- settling disputes, handling discipline, dealing with injuries.
- smoothing operations such as scheduling, staffing, supply.
- introducing ideas and cultivating attitudes among the faculty.
- "disarming the volatile critic."
- recruiting students to preserve enrollments, staff, and budgets.
- cutting through or around the chain of command to get things done.
- selectively serving special needs of teachers, students, and parents.
- cultivating their own power, connections, and careers.

IMAGE OF THE SCHOOL: A GOING CONCERN. Whatever professed goals set a school apart from other kinds of organizations, the school shares with other organizations a set of corporate goals: managing uncertainty in its environment, preserving its myths and patterns, and providing rewards to its employees. The corporate goals and the professed goals may be, or often are, inconsistent with each other.

Some Modes of Principal's Influence: Creative insubordination—ignoring or disobeying orders from above in order to dilute their dehumanizing effects.

- attempting to save teachers' jobs.
- ignoring requirements to protect staff from paperwork.
- saving central administrators' embarrassment or bother.
- advising new teachers how to get along with parents.

Some Conditions and Limits of Action:

- distance or indifference from the central office.
- rules amenable to a variety of interpretations.
- friends and allies in the right places.

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*Crowson and Morris, 1982.

present myths and patterns, and rewarding its employees; the principal must attend to these goals. Understandably, say these counterarguments, specific involvements with instruction will take up a small part of a principal's time, energy, and thought.

Moreover, say the counterarguments, the principal's attention to matters other than instruction are not necessarily diversions of the principal's time and energy from instruction. They are not instances of goal displacement, in which the means to an end become more important than the end itself. Rather, it is primarily by attention to the environment and material necessities of instruction that a principal contributes to it (Crowson and Morris, 1982). These arguments are not easily overturned.

Further, to the degree that the principal does concentrate directly on instruction, there remains a variety of possible objects for leadership, for influence on school outcomes. In Figures 2-5, 2-6, and 2-7, principals apply their energies to individual teachers as autonomous professionals; to instructional programs, practices, and procedures; and to faculties' norms for working together. These are appreciably different images both of principals' behavior and of schools and their faculties.

The size and structure of the school may have much to do with the plausibility of these and other images of leadership. The "staff advisor" in Figure 2-5 is easier to imagine if the school is small. If the school has several assistant principals, a dozen or more department heads, and a faculty of 150 or more teachers, the "program manager" of Figure 2-6 may be a more plausible view of instructional leadership. In promoting norms of "collegiality" and "continuous improvement" (Figure 2-7), the principal of a small school might well be a direct participant with teachers. In a large school, the principal more plausibly would treat collegial norms as a matter of school design to be implemented through assistant principals or department heads.

D. Knowledge and Skill.

Sometimes principals are described by the types of skill and knowledge they employ most often and proficiently. Each of the images presented here implies a variety of skills and information which a principal might require or rely on.

In an attempt to go beyond crude dichotomies between "effective" and "ineffective" principals, Leithwood and Montgomery (1984) have addressed "Patterns of Growth in Principal Effectiveness." They propose that a comprehensive theory of effectiveness and the growth of effectiveness in principals is provided by applying an information processing model of learning. In this view, the most effective principals are likely to be

Figure 2-5

IMAGE OF LEADERSHIP*: STAFF ADVISOR, CLINICAL SUPERVISOR. The principal helps each teacher in the school to realize his unique professional aspirations and potential. The principal is concerned primarily for humane relations and dealings among diverse and valuable persons, and show this by:

- learning and demonstrating respect for the styles and needs of teachers.
- encouraging and acknowledging good work according to each teacher's definitions of that.
- involving staff in making decisions which affect them and the school.
- fostering a climate of mutual respect and civil pluralism in the school.
- promoting communication among faculty.

Origins of Principal's Action: These lie in the principal's perspective and skills.

- appropriate and humane processes will produce good outcomes.
- persons who are happy and secure in their work will work well.

IMAGE OF THE SCHOOL: The school is a network of relations among diverse, autonomous, and worthy persons.

Some Modes of Principal's Influence:

- By learning and accepting another's views and motives, one may appeal to and influence him.
- Providing a person the support she wants to achieve her goals brings out the best she has to offer.
- Involving a person in decisionmaking allows her to confront all the relevant considerations and induces her support for the decisions which are made.
- Free and open communication about persons' perceptions and feelings frees them to work better together.

Some Conditions and Limits of Action:

- Constant exploration of and attendance to the diverse views of others.
- Reconciling one's own behavior and resources with others' diversity.

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*Bossert et al., 1981; Leithwood and Montgomery, 1984.

Figure 2-6

IMAGE OF LEADERSHIP*: PROGRAM MANAGER; INSTRUCTIONAL COORDINATOR. The principal applies her authority, personality, and knowledge systematically to instructional goals and practices. In this, the principal:

- o sets goals for the school, staff, and students, and asks them to do the same.
- o monitors progress of students, staff, and programs.
- o observes teachers' work, and discusses it with them.
- o arranges and provides training for teachers.
- o distributes or recommends professional literature.
- o establishes teacher evaluation and program evaluation procedures, and acts on the results.
- o establishes incentives for professionalism.

Origins of Principal's Action:

- o official and personal commitment to achievement and accountability.

Objects of Principal's Action:

- o curriculum
- o instruction
- o procedures for their improvement.

IMAGE OF THE SCHOOL: The school is a formal organization dedicated to instruction, where public and professional business is conducted publicly and professionally.

Some Modes of Principal's Influence:

- o Assertion of authority, knowledge, and a forceful personality encourge and enforce attention to the school's goals, to the school's methods, and to their improvement.
- o Appeals to others' professionalism and appropriate procedures for its application produce effective teaching and school programs.

Some Conditions and Limits of Action:

- o Properly delegated and asserted authority.
- o Knowledge of curriculum, instruction, and its improvement.
- o Managerial skill.

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*Bossert et al., 1981; Persell, Cookson, and Lyons, 1982; Leithwood and Montgomery, 1984.

Figure 2-7

IMAGE OF LEADERSHIP*: The principal promotes norms of collegiality and continuous improvement in teaching. The principal:

- o describes and calls for desired practices.
- o enacts or models those practices.
- o sanctions others' use or failure to use those practices.
- o defends users of the practices.

Origins of Principal's Action:

- o emerging conceptions of professional conduct.
- o expectations of reference groups in and outside the school.
- o a preference for teamwork.

Objects of Principal's Action: the faculty's expectations and habits in regard to:

- o talk about teaching, observing teaching, sharing the preparation of materials, learning from and with each other.
- o examining, altering, and evaluating instructional practices and using alternatives available in professional literature.

IMAGE OF THE SCHOOL: INFORMAL ORGANIZATION. The school is an informal social organization defined by its norms (shared and enforced expectations) for conduct by administrators, teachers, and students.

Some Modes of Principal's Influence:

- o The principal has a distinctive right to initiate new behavior in the school.
- o The norms of a group can be described, assessed, and negotiated.
- o By steady effort, new patterns of behavior can be established as norms.

Some Conditions and Limits of Action:

- o A minimum frequency and duration of interaction may be needed to achieve predictability, build skill, and consolidate routines.
- o A sufficiently narrow focus on specific practices may be needed to build shared language and expectations and to meet technical requirements.

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*Little, 1982.

"systematic problem solvers", who not only approach school administration as a task of systematic learning but also engage their staffs in collective learning --"decisionmaking"--as a route to improvement. (See Figure 2-8.)

Others also have argued that effective principals are intellectually lively and proficient analysts. The systematic elaboration of those qualities as particular skills, or strategies, applied to specific aspects, or factors, of schooling is a framework for describing what a principal does or might do. While a large and relevant terrain has been encompassed but not described by assignment to the categories of "Factors" and "Strategies", elaboration of these could in time provide a view with considerable comprehension. The framework might be considered as a way of organizing research on leadership, schools, and teaching in a fashion useful to the intended users.

E. Character.

The character of the principal sometimes is regarded as a necessary component of leadership. In some cases, the relevance of character is recognized almost apologetically (Greenfield, 1982), with care that the reader should not conclude that the writer is recommending "traitist" approaches: attempts to reduce leadership to a set of individual traits which might be identified and used in selecting principals but which probably are not amenable to training. Such care is justified; what would one make of findings that either men or women possess more traits related to effective leadership? What use will a practicing principal find in the recommendation to be more "charismatic"?

But neither would too great caution about character traits be useful. The idea of "leadership" is practically nonsensical if one presumes a highly deterministic environment. Most interpretations of leadership rely on the proposition that persons will, first as a matter of individual principle, goals, and intents, use the authority, resources, prestige, lines of communication, informal roles, and other modes of influence which accompany their positions. One such image is of the principal as an opinion leader (see Figure 2-9).

The consideration of character in leadership need not be reduced to a simplistic traitist approach in which we assume that character is fixed and that we can only try to select persons who possess character traits we want. The relative durability of character does not place it entirely out of reach of policy. We can hold instead that much of character is a product of socialization, and that the relatively long periods in which a leader's character forms may be addressed by policies which attend to the traditions of education.

Figure 2-B

IMAGE OF LEADERSHIP*: SYSTEMATIC PROBLEM-SOLVER. The principal processes a large body of information relevant to effective operation of the school. In this, the principal:

- o employs multiple decisionmaking processes, working toward high levels of participation in them.
- o selects highly ambitious goals from multiple public sources and transforms them into short-term goals for planning.
- o uses those goals to promote consistency in staff effort.
- o uses research and professional judgement to influence specifically all factors bearing on student achievement.
- o uses a wide variety of strategies specific to goals and factors.

Origins of Principal's Action:

- o Persons direct their activities toward goals.
- o Information they receive into short-term memory is selected and sorted for long-term memory according to its relevance to goals.
- o Information in long-term memory is organized as factors relevant to a matter and as strategies by which these factors may be influenced.

Objects of Principal's Action:

- o Factors, which bear on the school and its productivity.
- o Strategies, by which the factors may be influenced.
- o Modes of decisionmaking, by which the principal with others arrives at a course of action.

IMAGE OF THE SCHOOL: INFORMATION. The school in context is a complex phenomenon providing information which might be processed. A part of that phenomenon is a set of persons who pursue goals, who process information in order to attain them, and who might be engaged in decisionmaking.

Some Modes of Principal's Influence:

- o The principal validly discerns factors which bear on a matter at hand.
- o The principal formulates strategies which will influence those factors.
- o The principal employs effective modes of participative decisionmaking.

Some Conditions and Limits of Action:

- o The principal's repertoire of action depends both on her past and present proficiency in getting, receiving, storing, and organizing information.

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*Leithwood and Montgomery, 1984.

Figure 2-9

IMAGE OF LEADERSHIP*: OPINION LEADER, GOAL SETTER. The principal promotes high expectations (predictions and goals) for students, teachers, and the school. In this, the principal:

- o expresses and acts on the assumption that the school is largely responsible for the students' learning.
- o promotes clear and high performance standards for students.
- o expresses optimism about students' and teachers' ability and performance, and rejects others' acceptance of failure.
- o demands respect from and gives respect to all in the school.

Origins of Principal's Action:

The principal believes that achievement is paramount, and that students can achieve.
The principal accepts responsibility for the achievement of students, and expects staff and students to do the same.

Objects of Principal's Action:

- o perceptions
- o expectations (goals and predictions)
- o opinions

IMAGE OF THE SCHOOL: The school has a climate of opinion and aspiration which influences the morale and conduct of its members. Prominent figures in the school may influence that climate.

Some Modes of Principal's Influence:

- o clear and high expectations define success, increasing the prospects for both recognition and rebuke.
- o clear and high expectations may appeal to others' aspirations and pride.
- o clear and high expectations may focus a search for options.
- o enacted expectations may glean respect, provide models, and induce reciprocity.
- o shared opinions may increase in influence and stability.

Some Conditions and Limits of Action:

- o A minimum frequency of interaction among staff may be needed to spread and sustain opinion.
- o Sustained high levels of energy by opinion leaders may be needed to promote and model expectations.

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*Bossert et al., 1981; Persell, Cookson, and Lyons, 1982.

IV. THEORY DEVELOPMENT.

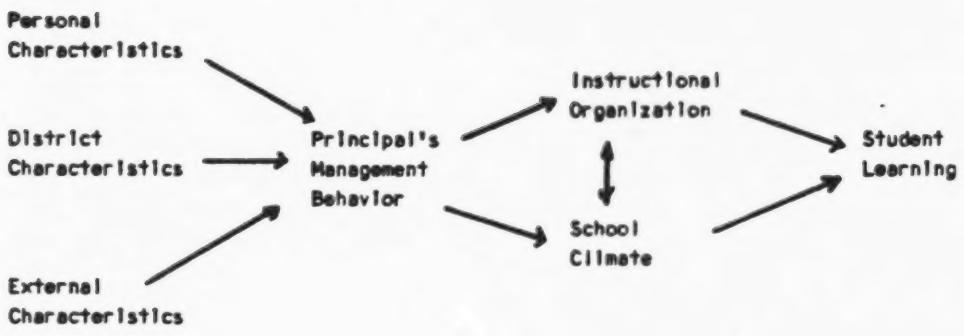
The raft of issues and images of school leadership has stimulated a call for theory-building, for analyses which help to reconcile apparent contradictions among findings and images and help to formulate the array of issues, so as to support progressively more powerful and useful studies of educational and instructional leadership. Several different theoretical approaches have been seen in the images of leadership reported here.

Bossert, Dwyer, Lee and Rowan (1981) proposed a general framework which relates leadership both to an array of variables which may influence a leader's behavior and to variables through which leadership may influence school outcomes (Figure 2-10). The framework indicates that principals' management behavior can depend on a variety of district and external circumstances as well as their own characteristics and intentions. Further, it indicates that the chains of effect between principals' management behavior and outcomes for students are relatively long, as they work through effects on school climate and instructional organization.

This framework declares that the leadership of schools can be well understood only in formulations which also unravel schools' organization and circumstances. These cannot be reduced to residual categories like factors and strategies, but must be explored and related specifically to the principal's behavior as a leader. Thus, there is plenty of room here for the complexity and ambiguity which have been found in school leadership. In light of the factors which bear on principals' management behavior and of the long chains of effect through which that behavior exerts influence, principals' discretion and influence both are problematic. The broad categories of instructional organization and school climate contain a variety of possible objects for leadership, and of knowledge and skills to be applied. Leadership in the milieu suggested by the framework might well require considerable character: personal stability and momentum in the face of complexity, turbulence, and inertia. This framework goes far to organize the array of issues and images of leadership in schools.

At the same time, the framework itself suggests that it has made the principal's management behavior too prominent a part of the total scheme. The principal's personal characteristics and behavior are given essentially the same standing as matters of considerably greater magnitude and momentum: district characteristics, characteristics of the school's environment, the school's climate, and the school's instructional organization. Further, district characteristics and external factors may exert substantial effects of their own on school climate, instructional organization, and student outcomes; it is unlikely that they are

Figure 2-10



as greatly mediated by the principal's behavior as Figure 2-10 suggests. Finally, instructional organization and school climate are made up in part by persons who may operate under complex demands different from the principal's, take initiatives of their own, apply other kinds of knowledge and skill, and exert their own characters.

As the framework itself suggests that the principal's part is written too large, it also suggests an adjustment. The school's organization and environment are already the largest part of Figure 2-10. Instead of building up a view of the principalship by adding the organizational considerations, we might start with the organization and seek the principal's part within it. Along that line, we soon meet a challenge to any strong claim for leadership. That challenge is the first topic of Chapter 3.

Chapter 3
CONTROL, FREEDOM, AND OPPORTUNITY
The School as an Informal Social Organization

In a plain notion of instructional leadership, the leader forms some knowledgeable intention regarding instruction, takes rational action on that intention, and follows through to assure that the intention is realized. That notion assumes an organization which is responsive to the leader's intentions and actions. For some students of organization, that assumption is debatable:

> For some time people who manage organizations and people who study this managing have asked, 'How does an organization go about doing what it does and with what consequences for its people, processes, products, and persistence?' And for some time they've heard the same answers. In paraphrase the answers say essentially that an organization does what it does because of plans, intentional selection of means that get the organization to agree upon goals, and all of this is accomplished by such rationalized procedures as cost-benefit analyses, division of labor, specified areas of discretion, authority invested in the office, job descriptions, and a consistent evaluation and reward system. The only problem with that portrait is that it is rare in nature. People in organizations, including educational organizations, find themselves hard pressed either to find actual instances of those rational practices or to find rationalized practices whose outcomes have been as beneficent as predicted, or to feel that those rational occasions explain much of what goes on within the organization" (Weick, 1976, p. 1).

With that introduction, Karl E. Weick (1976) cites others in adopting and elaborating a view in which, by virtue of "loose coupling" in organizations, would-be leaders' intentions have few necessary consequences. Weick's argument goes well beyond the common observation that organizations sometimes depart from their official descriptions.

> At the outset the two most commonly discussed coupling mechanisms are the technical core of the organization and the authority of office. . . . A compelling argument can be made that neither of these coupling mechanisms is prominent in educational organizations found in the United States. This leaves one with the question what does hold an educational organization together? (p. 4, emphasis in original).

If the "technical core" of schools is teaching, the statement would appear to mean that schools are not organized by (or for) their primary manifest purpose of instruction and that, whatever their intentions, the official acts of school administrators have little bearing on what students might learn.

Finally, Weick introduces doubt about the relevance of leaders' intentions:

> There is a developing position in psychology which argues that intentions are poor guides for action, intentions often follow rather than precede action, and that intentions and action are loosely coupled. (p. 4.).

Nominating means and ends, yesterday and tomorrow, teachers and materials, voters and school boards, administrators and classrooms, processes and outcomes, teachers and teachers, teachers and parents, and teachers and pupils as other loosely coupled elements of schooling, Weick extends his question:

> How can such loose assemblages (schools) retain sufficient similarity and permanence across time that they can be recognized, labeled, and dealt with? The prevailing ideas in organization theory do not shed much light on how such 'soft' structures develop, persist, and impose crude orderliness among their elements (p. 2).

On behalf of a prospective instructional leader, one might ask how loose assemblages are led.

Robert Crowson and Van Cleve Morris (1982) paint a similar picture. After reporting their own and others' findings that principals spend small proportions of their time in activities which could be called instructional leadership, these authors report:

> (W)e note that Hannaway and Sproull (1979) plus Deal and Celotti (1980) have investigated 'linkages' between school site-level administrators and the upper organizational

> hierarchy. These investigators report that little of the working day, in either sector, is spent responding to initiatives of coordination and control originating in the other. Communication 'from the top down' and 'from the bottom up' appears to be equally minimal. Furthermore, both site-level and upper-level managers spend little of their time coordinating and controlling the 'core' tasks of the organization, namely, curriculum and instruction. Thus, classroom instruction, they report, is 'virtually unaffected' by organizational and administrative factors (pp. 1-2).

In regard to teaching, then, schools are not organizations of the bureaucratic sort; rather, they are "loose assemblages." Nevertheless, these loose assemblages reveal considerable similarity across geography, demonstrate considerable durability over time, and produce some part of what is expected of them. And they are, to some degree or occasionally, led. In regard to the studies indicating that schools and districts are loosely coupled, Crowson and Morris go on to note that,

> (p)aradoxically, these findings appear in the literature simultaneous with an increased interest in and heightened attention to the study of the effect of administrative behavior on learning outcomes.

Having noted discrepancies between a theory of organization and some findings about schools as organizations, both Weick and Crowson and Morris presume that it is the theory which should change. They set out to make other pictures of the character, virtues, shortcomings, and (in Crowson and Morris) leadership of loosely coupled organizations. So shall we.

The object will be to build up a picture of a school in which there are characteristic patterns of instruction , in which some action by administrators can exert appreciable influence on teaching, but in which bureaucratic means often are futile and their overuse might be harmful. An image of schools will be constructed; that will take some time. In due course, it is hoped there will be a sufficiently elaborate, detailed, and interesting analysis of instructional leadership to make the effort worthwhile. The beginning place is an elemental notion of action and influence: social norms.

This account draws heavily on Gross, Mason, and McEachern's (1958) Explorations In Role Analysis, a pioneering study of norms in education, and from Jackson's (1966) "Conceptual and Measurement Model For Norms and Roles", which provided much of the usage and the method of measurement for the second stage of the research.

I. NORMS

In her study of six schools operating under court-ordered desegregation in an urban district, Judith Little (1982) concluded that the apparently more adaptable and successful schools were distinguished by powerfully held and widely enacted agreements for working together to get better. She called those agreements "norms of continuous improvement" and "norms of collegiality." While those norms reflected general subscriptions to ideas of professional quality, they were specific prescriptions for particular persons' acts in specific situations. And they were consequential; persons could gain or lose stature by their performance or failure to perform in accordance with the prevailing expectations. By virtue of their sharing these expectations, it appeared, the faculties of the more successful schools were better organized than other faculties to deal with changing populations and goals of achievement. The principals of these schools were, it appeared, central figures in the shaping of those norms.

A. The Evolution of Norms.

"Norm" is used in various ways. As a name for ideal behavior from some point of view, it has virtually no referent. Who ever behaves ideally? As a name for typical behavior, it can refer to what usually happens but offers little in the way of an explanation. When "norm" is used to refer only to usual behavior, the proposition that the principal shapes the norms of the school tells us that the principal influences how people do usually behave, but leaves us where we were; how does that happen? In what view could a "norm" both be subject to "shaping" by a principal and be a plausible influence on others' behavior?

1. Acts in Situations. Persons placed together will find it necessary and advantageous to become mutually predictable. They can do so, to some degree, even without speaking. They accumulate experience of their respective acts in various situations and learn in time to stay to the right on the trail or in the hallway. They become more predictable to each other and thus save themselves time, trouble, and pain. They bump into each other less often, and perhaps gain some trust in each other. Solely on the basis of this mutual accommodation, it becomes sensible to speak of norms or expectations in the sense of "prediction" and to describe usual or predictable behavior in an inductive way.

That description will be complex. Action tends to depend on circumstances. Either to describe past behavior or to predict future behavior, it is necessary to consider both the behavior and the salient features of the circumstances in which it occurs. One

would not push people in most situations, but would push them out of the way of an oncoming truck. One might offer a hand in greeting on most occasions, but not when butchering hogs. One might criticize the work of a teacher, but it matters where, when, and how that is done. The act in situation is a fundamental description of behavior. To describe the patterns in activity, one must know not only the act, but also the salient features of the situation in which it occurs. The map even of apparently simple activities can be complex.

2. Actions and Sanctions. American men might be more comfortable wearing skirts. Many men in the world do wear skirts. With extraordinary regularity American men wear long or short pants, except at occasions such as toga parties and bagpipe exhibitions. Comfort, convenience, and habit are not sufficient to account for this regularity. One possible explanation is that if he did not wear pants, an American male could be subject to some of American society's severest sanctions: the double-take, the poorly suppressed giggle, and the whisper heard 'round the room. In this and in many other aspects of collective life, our shared and enforced expectations can be so powerful that they both are almost universally complied with and are taken for granted. Some of the most powerful influences on behavior are perceived as ordinary, of little interest. Asked to account for some of our most predictable behavior, we are likely to say, "that's just how things are done here."

That expression conveys both agreement that things should be done in that way and a prediction that others will react if things are not done that way. By their reactions to behavior, persons become objective circumstances for each other (Parsons, 1937). In contemplating action, we face not only others' silent judgements but also their visible reactions. Behavior comes to be influenced both by its other consequences and by its social consequences.

For Gross, Mason, and McEachern (1958), rewards and punishments, or "sanctions," include behavior which has primarily gratificational, as distinct from instrumental, significance, which has more to do with adjusting another's income, status, physical or emotional comfort or access to rewards than with accomplishing any task. Some rewards and punishments are better suited to some circumstances and actions than to others. Ordinarily, we don't beat guests who happen to belch at the table, or if they fail to belch to praise the meal. Teachers might often want to kill students who barge out the "In" door, but they seldom do. Whether rewards and punishments fit the behavior to which they are a response is an important aspect of social organization, and an important part of the moral order which it comprises.

3. A School As a Set of Norms. With the addition of sanctions, shared predictions about behavior become shared prescriptions for behavior, a social invention. "Norm" will be employed here in the latter sense, of shared prescriptions for behavior in situations, which are enforced through prescribed reactions by others to an actor's behavior.

Faculty members' behavior toward each other and toward students can be considered as a complex set of norms--more or less shared expectations concerning acts in situations, accompanied by the appropriate sanctions. Like American norms concerning pants for men, the norms regarding the behavior of teachers and principals can be both immensely powerful and virtually invisible--taken for granted.

Some such, it appears, are the norms of teacher autonomy, the expectations that teaching is essentially an individual enterprise and that, by and large, teachers should be left alone to do their work. The first survey in this study asked numerous questions about observation of teachers by department heads and by other teachers. One respondent stated firmly that "that is not done"; the context suggested that the statement was both moral and factual. Others suggested in comments on the survey that it was rude to ask such questions. Others allowed that observation of teachers by teachers just doesn't happen, so the questions were nonsense. These comments may reflect the taken-for-granted.

4. Action, Language, and Leadership. The evolution of shared language will be an advantage to the participants in most endeavors. They can explain how they did intend or do intend to behave. They can make plans. They can explore their behavioral options without the investment and potential consequences of enacting them. They can hasten the induction and training of new members. Shared words greatly increase a collective's capacity.

Shared language can bring increasing subtlety and precision to the description and prescription (or proscription) of behavior. Depending on the exact circumstances, the act of killing another person can be described as cold-blooded murder, a crime of passion, an act of negligence, an accident, necessary self-defense, a duty, or heroism. The killing may be described as aggravated by viciousness, mitigated by necessity, or justified by concern for others. With sufficient language, a group might organize matters of considerable complexity and subtlety, such as the characteristics and purposes of questions which teachers ask students.

While shared language may increase the capacity of a collection of persons to teach and control each other, it also is a source of freedom and opportunity for all the participants.

Language is slippery, sometimes vague, subject to different interpretations. It is a powerful but not perfect tool for describing, prescribing, or proscribing action. Thus a participant in any activity may have considerable latitude in how s/he construes the relevant language, or invents new constructions, to rationalize behavior. If teaching is a complex and subtle enterprise, and if influence on teaching relies on language, then influence on teaching may be difficult to exert.

In Little's (1982) report, the first of four common initatives by which leaders tried to change norms in their schools was to announce new expectations, to begin the initiative with words designed to make new actions clear, reasonable, and predictable. That wasn't always a simple task. Having considered his options, the principal of one of the present study's schools announced to the faculty, in their first meeting of the year, that he would be visiting their classrooms more often. He would be looking particularly for clarity in their objectives and for a suitable match between the objectives and the work of the class. Both the principal's and the reseachers' subsequent discussions with teachers revealed that few of the faculty could recall hearing the principal announce his new initiative. That first faculty meeting had been a long and busy one, devoted largely to the details of opening the school. It probably was not the best occasion for the principal to make his announcement. It certainly provided the opportunity for selective hearing by teachers.

5. Action and Value. Generalizations about behavior tend to produce expressions of value: goals of and principles for behavior. Behavior in context may be described--often simultaneously--as more or less useful, influential, competent, humorous, truthful, fair, economical, warm, necessary, or beautiful. These expressions of value may assume considerable importance as justifications for past behavior, standards for present behavior, or guides to future behavior. However, they need not be consistent in their implications for any behavior. A student's running to get to class on time might be described as efficient and also as dangerous. The suggested solution is likely to involve at least a third value--foresight. How values are reconciled in action is both an important criterion for the evaluation of persons' performances and a central problem in social organization (Parsons, 1937).

While values such as safety, basic skill, learning to learn, and creativity may have considerable power to inform or require behavior, the inconsistency among values as they apply to specific situations also is a source of freedom for the actors in any situation. Within some range, actors have a choice of justifications for their conduct. A hesitant or tentative approach to suggesting improvements in a teacher's work might be criticized

if the relevant value is improvement in teaching, but supported if the value is warm relations in a faculty. A conversation might be started with the suggestion that "We need some shared goals," but it also can be stopped by the remark, "Well, each of us has his own philosophy, doesn't he?"

6. Norms, Language, and Leadership. The social organization of complex activities such as teaching requires the emergence of language which is sufficiently shared, precise, and informative to make the necessary distinctions among acts and situations. One way to guage a faculty's capacity for systematic improvement of teaching, then, is to ask whether it has such shared terms for its important activities, whether it has a "shared technical language" (Lortie, 1975). Subtle intellectual activities are unlikely to be organized by persons who, through lack of shared terms, are practically reduced to pointing and grunting.

Norms are capable of exerting great influence on the behavior of the members of a group and, by virtue of limitations of language and the multiplicity of relevant values, capable of leaving each of them considerable freedom to act. Depending on their norms, the loose assemblages of schools and districts can be durable, and unresponsive to administrative actions, and responsive to leadership of other kinds.

B. Measuring and Describing Norms.

Gross, Mason and McEachern (1958) and Jackson (1966) picture norms in much the same way. First, a "norm" is not behavior, but is another's expectation (prescription) for an actor's behavior. One asks how others are likely to respond to an actor's behavior. Others are taken as objective features of the actor's environment, and their reactions to the actor's behavior are viewed as potential influences on that behavior.

1. Expectation: Approval and Intensity. Gross, Mason, and McEachern asked school board members whether or not superintendents should smoke. The board members could say that superintendents must smoke, should smoke, could smoke or not, should not smoke, or must not smoke. There are two dimensions to this expectation. One is the direction of approval: should or should not. The other is intensity of approval: may do, should (not) do, or must (not) do.

That way of measuring expectations does not distinguish situations. In 1958, Massachussetts school board members as a group responded that a superintendent may or may not smoke; smoking was discretionary. Today, the responses to the unsituated behavior might be somewhat different. But it is likely that both

in 1958 and today the items "smoke in a class of students" and "smoke in the superintendent's own office" would receive different patterns of response. Other expectations for school superintendents are more important than those concerning smoking, but none of them is less likely to depend on situational factors. If asked whether superintendents should disagree with school board members, most respondents would ask in return: "When? Where? About what? In what manner?" A superintendent's effectiveness and tenure may depend on the answers to such questions.

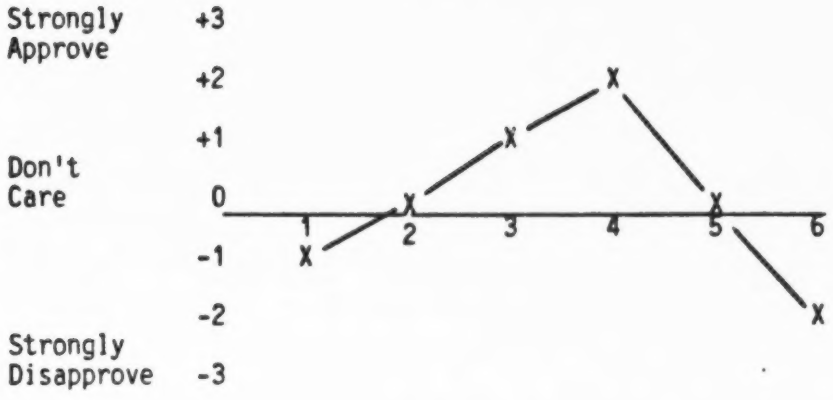
2. Expectations and Behavior. Jay Jackson's (1966) picture of norms is similar. The two dimensions of the expectation--direction and intensity--are captured in a response set ranging from "strongly approve" to "strongly disapprove", where "don't care" is the midpoint. However, each act is presented in a situation in order to provide the respondent some of the information on which the respondent's reaction to an actual case of such behavior might be based. The aim in surveys is to obtain approval-disapproval ratings which approximate respondents' actual reactions if they were to encounter the behavior in situations such as those the survey describes.

In one instance, Jackson (1962) studied "the regulation of authoritative behavior" among staff in mental institutions. He presented typical situations, e.g., it is time to decide what the patients will do for the afternoon. He presented an actor--a nurse (or orderly or doctor). The nurse could act in ways which exert more or less authority:

1. He does nothing about it.
2. He passes on the facts without giving any opinion.
3. He suggests a number of different ways of handling it.
4. He recommends how it should be handled.
5. He decides how to handle it and asks for an o.k.
6. He decides how to handle it and carries it out without asking anyone else.

Respondents were asked how much they would approve or disapprove of each degree of authoritative behavior in each of a number of situations. The patterns of approval or disapproval for these options for authoritative behavior can be displayed as follows:

Figure 3-1.
RETURN POTENTIAL MODEL OF NORMS



The vertical axis (-3 to +3) in this chart Jackson calls the "return potential dimension". It combines the direction and intensity of expressed reactions to hypothetical behavior in a situation. On the horizontal axis is an array of behavioral options (1-6) designed to reflect a dimension of behavior--in this case, authority.

Respondents' feelings about the given actor's behavior in the given situation are displayed by the curve drawn in the diagram.

3. Characteristics of Norms. In the hypothetical case above, the most approved behavior according to the respondents is point 4, "He recommends how it should be handled." Doing nothing (point 1) is disapproved, as is unilateral action (point 6). Clearly, the degree of authority approved for nurses might be different from that approved for staff psychiatrists, or for orderlies. Jackson proposes that

> (t)he point of maximum potential return, or highest point on the curve, represents the ideal behavior prescribed by the members of the social system. This is commonly considered to be a norm, although it is preferable to think of the entire return potential curve as the norm, since it represents the total range both of prescriptions and proscriptions. . . . The model implies, therefore, that we should think in terms of degrees of normness, or the process of normative regulation, rather than in terms of norm as a thing (Jackson, 1966).

In addition to the point of maximum potential return--most approved behavior, Jackson's picture of norms contains some other useful descriptive properties.

The range of tolerable behavior corresponds to the segment of the behavior dimension which is approved, even weakly, by some group of respondents. The range of tolerable behavior can be narrower or wider, and might be located more toward one end or the other of the behavior dimension. In the preceding example, behavior options 2, 3, 4 and 5 are in the tolerated range. While the ideal behavior for the nurse would be to recommend how the matter should be handled, the figure indicates that the members of this hypothetical group also would find it acceptable if the nurse suggested several ways of handling the matter, or decided how it should be handled and asked for approval of that decision before carrying it out.

In norms pertaining to instructional leadership, the range of tolerable behavior might define a principal's latitude to take a hand in some aspect of instruction without resistance. The principal's degree of discretion within district policy, the teacher contract, and other formal provisions has been raised as an important question about the principalship. Translated to this picture of norms the question is, What is the range of tolerated behavior in various situations?

The return potential difference is a respondent group's general tendency toward approval or toward disapproval for all options in the behavior dimension. All negative (disapproval) scores are substracted from all positive (approval) scores for all behavior options. The return potential difference--called the "tendency" hereafter--may assume a positive, zero, or negative value. It suggests whether the members of a group resort more to reward (approval) or punishment (disapproval) in enforcing the options for behavior in some domain. The tendency toward approval or disapproval may describe, in part, the climate or tone of a school.

Intensity is the strength of expressed reactions to the options for behavior, regardless of the direction of those preferences. As disapproval scores can range from 0 to -3 and approval scores can range from 0 to +3, intensity can range from 0 to 3. Whether persons approve or disapprove of some behavior in a situation, their intensity may bear on the probability that they will enforce their expectations actively.

Crystallization is the degree to which the members of a group agree in the direction and intensity of their expectations. Crystallization will be called "consensus" hereafter. It is computed so that it ranges between 0 (no agreement) and 1

(complete agreement). The greater a group's consensus in its expectations, presumably, the fewer allies and less support that any of its members will have in behaving contrary to those expectations. When we speak of "solidarity" or "consistency" in a group, we often are referring to the crystallization, or degree of consensus, in their expectations for behavior.

4. Consensus About Behavior; Control of Behavior. Both Jackson and Gross, Mason, and McEachern reject what the latter termed "the postulate of consensus." They do not assume that complete agreement in expectations among all members of a group is needed to influence members' behavior. Rather, they propose that the specificity, intensity, and degree of consensus in expectations can vary, and that the power of those expectations to influence behavior will vary accordingly.

In one situation, an actor might decide to conform to a mildly felt and broadly shared expectation because there is no reason to do otherwise. Placed between two intense but contradictory sets of expectations, an actor might face considerable risks. At the same time, that actor might have substantial opportunities to influence the trade-offs between the groups. On a situational basis, social organization may exert considerable influence, but also may provide both freedom and opportunity to individual actors.

5. Structure and Process: Action in Groups. Jackson's Return Potential Model is used in this study as a practical and measurable image of norms. The model is based on acts in situations--what actually happens. It proposes plausible mechanisms of influence: the building, teaching, and enforcement of shared expectations. The model investigates shared prescriptions for behavior, but does not assume a consensus. The degree of agreement, intensity, and power of the expectation to influence behavior can vary. The model incorporates specific and situated options for behavior organized on relevant dimensions of value, e.g., authority. Finally, the model has been employed in formal organizational settings to examine norms akin to those of interest in this study.

This view of norms describes both social relations and social processes. If it is seen as a set of norms, the school is not a static but a dynamic phenomenon. Persons who share no more than expectations about passing in the hall are related and are organized to that degree--they are a group. Even in the absence of a bureaucratic hierarchy, the group has a structure--a set of relations among its members. Minimally, these relations are no more (and no less) than mutual predictability with respect to some sorts of behavior in some situations. The individuals can be said to be "members" of the group in that they expect and owe the

prescribed behavior. They deal with one another on that basis. To that extent, the interactive process of normative regulation is underway.

6. Formal and Informal Expectations. So far, nothing has been said of the sorts of expectations which are reflected in school district or school building policies and plans or in master contracts with teachers. Considerable importance often is attached to such documents. Jackson (1966) argues that

> . . .what is significant in regulating (an) Actor's behavior is represented at the level of response tendencies of the Others of the system. If formal prescriptions for behavior are accepted by members of a system, they will be represented at this level (p. 39).

If policy handbooks and contracts count in daily behavior, they will be reflected in informal norms. If a principal is effectively bound by an article of policy, or if a teacher supports an article of a teachers' contract, that will be reflected in their expectations for behavior in various situations in their school. If formal prescriptions are not reflected in informal expectations, their relevance to a school staff's behavior toward each other or toward students may be questioned.

In relations between a school and its district, informal organization provides actors several sources of freedom which are sufficient to warrant the term "loose coupling" and to account for the discretion which have been attributed to principals (Morris et al., 1981). Formal policies and teacher contracts are made of those slippery words; they admit various interpretations. The persons who wrote them are seldom present to enforce them. The formalities reflect a range of values or goals which are not necessarily consistent in their implications for a given situation. The variety and complexity of schools increases the range of justifications which might be given for behavior which the policy-writer either did not foresee or would actively oppose if he knew about it. The formalities leave a great deal of daily life to be organized informally. Further, the informal system has integrity and inertia of its own. A principal or a teacher may be placed in the situation of sacrificing informal relations to a district policy or to a provision of a teacher contract, and may choose not to do so. In all these ways, a school may be said to be loosely coupled to its district.

An individual school may be loosely coupled with regard to instruction. Even in the most ambitious supervision and evaluation schemes, little of teachers' behavior in the classroom is seen by administrators. Typically, department heads seldom see teachers at work and teachers see each other at work even more rarely.

Teaching is a complex craft with multiple aims inviting a multitude of justifications for behavior. In such circumstances, the formation of powerful norms for teaching will be a substantial accomplishment.

If these are the conditions of schools, the prospect is limited that any of a district's administrative prescriptions for curriculum and teaching will exert a substantial or uniform effect on the behavior of teachers in classrooms. That prospect resides primarily in the district's ability either to place effective advocates of its prescriptions in schools, or to cultivate among the participants in individual schools specific leadership for the district's prescriptions. If powerful norms of instruction or instructional leadership emerge, it is most likely to be in the context of the individual school, and by action of the school's participants. District policy and activity may make that accomplishment harder or easier, but probably cannot make it necessary.

However, to say that schools are unresponsive to bureaucratic leadership is not also to say that they defy any and all leadership. As informal organizations, schools contain their own opportunities for initiative.

II. COOPERATION: POSITIONS, ROLES, AND STATUS

One way of asking how a school works is to map the positions within it. A position may be recognized by its characteristic activities and by its typical relations with other positions. A teacher produces a complex classroom performance, dealing most extensively with students in a relation of unequal power and knowledge. Does a teacher also deal with other teachers about teaching students, and what is their relation? Are responsibilities for leadership or improvement of instruction important characteristics of any of the positions in the school? If so, which positions? A few positions, or all positions? Are these responsibilities borne individually? Is cooperation for improvement an expected feature of positions in the school?

One should ask whether expectations regarding leadership, cooperation, and improvement are general or specific, as this may distinguish schools whose members aspire to improvement (or who give lip service to improvement) from schools whose members are specifically organized for it.

A. Roles: The Distribution of Activities.

In many areas, the school's allocation of activities and relations is intricate and precise. A teacher who adjourns a class at the bell and greets several students and other school staff members in a trip through the hallway for a quick chat with the principal in the office successively invokes several sets of relevant and potentially consequential expectations in the space of five minutes. By teaching and enforcing their expectations, the participants in the school can influence each other in specific and complex ways. The actors in the school often are aware of fine distinctions regarding appropriate behavior and tend to behave accordingly. Each position in the school is said to play a variety of roles depending on the time, the purposes, and the circumstances.

"Role" has considerable metaphoric power, which may account for its frequent use in describing leadership, cooperation, conflict, and other aspects of schools. The term conveys a character's complex, various, and often subtle exchanges with other characters according to a script which defines a plot and a set of scenes but which leaves considerable room for interpretation by the actor. The character's appearance, traits, perspectives, and functions within the plot all attach to and are in some ways conveyed by the notion of role. Metaphorically, at least, the idea of role is adequate to the complexity of life in schools.

Probably the term is too suggestive. There is no playwright for schools; they are created by the communities which establish them and the school personnel who enact them. If schools are plays, then the script is continuously rewritten by several committees at once. Further, the plot has no given conclusion. The good guys can lose. The school can fail from the points of view of any or all who have a stake in the production. Worse, if the school fails it cannot close after a short run. Day after day, the actors will have to keep on saying lines which fail to satisfy them or others.

1. Roles as Bundles of Norms. For present purposes, "role" will be stripped of some of its meaning. Take "role" to refer to "a group's expectations for the behavior of an actor in the presence of given others in a given situation." As Jackson's conception of norm applies to situated acts, "role" is being used in the same situated fashion.

Thus, role is seen as a bundle of norms, and the term is given four specifications: (1) the group whose expectations are relevant, (2) the person who is acting, (3) the others who are present, and (4) the situation.

A change in any of the four specifications changes the role. Some of the implied distinctions are substantial and obvious. A teacher dealing with students in a classroom is playing one role. The same teacher dealing with other teachers in the faculty room is playing a different role. Substantially different expectations apply to the teacher's behavior in the two cases. Other distinctions are finer, more subtle. A teacher who is talking to another teacher in a faculty room in the presence of other teachers is playing a distinct role. The same teacher talking to the same other teacher in the same faculty room--but in the presence of a principal--is playing another distinct role; the presence of the principal is likely to be a significant and potentially consequential distinction. Different expectations apply in the two cases. The topics, tones of voice, and ways of speaking are likely to be different for the two cases. A principal's speaking to a teacher in the faculty lounge invokes a different role than a principal's speaking to a teacher in private. A discussion of the teacher's annual evaluation is probably appropriate for the principal only in the latter role. The potential sanctions--"return potential"--for various options for behavior in the two cases are different.

To give "role" such a discriminating definition is not also to assume that every exchange between positions is appreciably

different. A teacher proceeding down a hallway may deal with several other teachers in much the same way, or with several students in the same way. Starting from the most situated view, one usefully may derive generalizations about a position's typical role performances in the presence of categories of others in categories of situations.

Any actor in the school, then, plays a variety of roles in accordance with the expectations which apply to his position. These roles vary according to the group whose expectations are relevant, the others who are present, and the situation in which the action is taken. Every actor in the play has an intricate character to perform, an intricate job description. It all depends. The position of each member of the school fairly is described as being complex.

2. Role Reciprocity: Give and Take. Expectations for one role imply related expectations for others in the same situation. If a person in one position has a right to speak, others have a duty to listen or at least not to interfere with the speaker. If one player is expected to initiate an exchange, another must be expected to respond in some fashion, or the first expectation is futile. If one is expected to lead, another must be expected to follow, or the expectation is hollow. The set of roles in a group is not just a collection of activities. It is a system of interaction, in which expectations for the performance of one role imply or require expectations for the performance of other roles. In the same way that "norm" refers not to a thing but to a pattern and a process, "role" refers not to a spot on a map but to a relation and to interaction.

By mapping its role system, one can ask much more specifically and systematically whether a school is organized for improvement. Little (1981) reported four "critical practices of improvement," activities which plausibly could affect teaching and learning in the school, which were described by participants in those schools as being related to the quality of their work, and which were more visible in some schools than in others. These four practices included (1) talking about teaching practices, (2) observing teaching and being observed while teaching, (3) preparing materials together, and (4) learning from and with each other.

One way to examine a school's capacity for improvement or leadership is to trace expectations regarding such activities. Are those activities permitted, required, or forbidden by the expectations of a faculty? For whom? When? How often? How well? With what degree of intensity and consensus among the actors? What part is the principal expected to play in them? If improvement counts in a school, the sorts of activities needed to produce it

should be prominent in the staff's expectations, and in the allocation of activities to positions and roles. If instruction is led, plausible initiatives should be parts of some roles in the school. In this study, as in Little's earlier one, the practices of improvement and leadership were neither common nor easily organized.

3. The Task of Cooperation. A detailed division of labor among roles guarantees neither cooperation nor leadership. At the same time that the system of roles allocates activities among positions, it also creates the problem of combining them in a going concern. Slippery language, multiple and potentially inconsistent values for action, and variation in the clarity, intensity, and specificity of norms are all sources of freedom for members of the organization. Actors moving in good faith to satisfy different expectations or to realize different values easily may move in different directions, leaving each other without the support necessary to get the job done. Or they may get in each other's way. Or they may come directly into conflict. Two teachers drawn by different parts of a curriculum and by different goals for students, or a teacher drawn by specific classes and a principal drawn by needs of a whole school may face such problems of cooperation.

In the same way that each actor must reconcile the values and expectations which apply to him, the actors together must reconcile the expectations which apply to them together. If they are to have an organization, as distinct from a collection of persons or from a division of labor, they need machinery for cooperation. Status provides such machinery.

B. Status, Cooperation, and Leadership.

Taken simply, "status" is a characteristic which others notice in or attribute to a person, to which others attribute some relevance in interaction, and on which they may base predictions about the person's behavior (Berger, Rosenholtz, and Zelditch, 1983). When others attribute relevance to a characteristic in many situations, these authors say that the characteristic is "general." Sex, race, physical attractiveness, occupation, and organizational position tend, properly or improperly, to be general status characteristics. When others attribute relevance to a characteristic only in particular situations or distinct classes of situations, these authors say that the status characteristic is "specific"; particular kinds of knowledge or skill tend to be treated this way.

Both general and specific status characteristics may, depending on how they are treated by others, give an individual

more or less ability to participate in and influence the work of a group. Thus "status," as a term for some potentially relevant set of personal characteristics, is relevant to leadership and so deserves examination.

1. Status and Norms. Like role, status can be taken to be defined by norms, by shared expectations and agreed sanctions. That is, a status characteristic's bearing on interaction depends less on its objective nature than on its social definition. In the 1910 Olympic Games, a women's 800 meter race was included for the first time. Some of the contestants collapsed. The event was dropped from subsequent games on the grounds that it was too strenuous for females. In the 1984 Olympics, a women's marathon was included for the first time. The winner took a victory lap. Perhaps the female constitution has changed radically in the intervening years. More likely, the status characteristic of "female" plays a different part than it once did in social activities involving sweat and shorts. Norms have changed.

Status plays a part in participation and influence, and thus in cooperation and leadership. While the norms of status come into play most visibly when the expectations applying to actors threaten to pull them apart, put them in each other's way, or bring them into conflict, those norms always are at work. In general, status norms prescribe who should take the initiative, and who should defer, for what reasons, in what situations.

2. Efficient Status; Dignified Status. If a distinctive and productive ethos is to be built or preserved in a school, persons will be deferring to each other in regard to dealing with students. Even if all the staff's ways of dealing with students are effective taken separately, there is still the important matter of their consistency with each other and their integration into a fruitful whole with a definite character and direction of movement. To the degree that status helps to achieve that integration, it may be called "efficient." The question then is on what basis and by what understandings some defer to others.

Authority is one possible basis. In regard to the curriculum and to teaching, teachers might defer to a principal because the principal has more authority. In some circumstances, department heads also may have more authority than teachers and exercise influence on their teaching. Other possible bases of influence are knowledge and skill. Persons recognized as having less knowledge or skill in teaching might defer to those who are perceived as having more. Knowledge or skill might combine with authority to provide influence to a principal, to a department head, or to a trainer or supervisor.

As some schools and districts contemplate master teacher or career ladder systems among teachers, one important question is how, given norms of teacher autonomy and privacy, some teachers will recognize and defer to the greater knowledge and skill of others.

In addition to its efficient aspect, status also has a dignified aspect. In general, the higher the status the greater the visible perquisites such as salary, offices, furniture, keys to washrooms, insignia, and rank. Within some limits, such perquisites serve to remind both the actor and others of the position he performs and to reward him for performing it well. Within some limits, such signs of status help the members of a group to bear their responsibilities and to defer to each other appropriately and gracefully. Run amok, the perquisites of status may produce exactly the opposite effect. In the absence of a performance justifying the perquisites, visible signs of status may be more irritant than clue to those who see them (Bernard, 1946).

3. Scalar and Functional Status. In some instances, one actor is routinely permitted or required to exercise greater latitude than others along the same dimension of their behavior. For example, one is routinely expected to decide, and others are routinely expected to be responsive to those decisions--one actor has more authority than others. This is the scalar aspect of status in which the status of one actor is said to be higher than the status of another because the relevant expectations pertain to the same dimension of their respective performances. If their respective roles draw them apart, or put them in each other's way, or bring them into conflict, one will yield to another with greater authority, or skill, or virtue.

In many instances, persons defer to each other not because one has more authority or skill than another, but because they have different sorts of authority, responsibility, or skill. The expectations defining status may call for one actor to yield to another when the matter at hand is within his prescribed domain or pertains to his recognized skill. This aspect of status is functional. It is based not on the possession of more or less of the same kind of authority or skill, but on different skills and on the performance of different duties in the division of labor (Bernard, 1946).

Like scalar status, functional status has both efficient and dignified parts. The expectations which govern each actor's yielding to another in accordance with his function and specialty can be said to be efficient, in that they enable actors to cooperate, at least to the extent of staying out of each other's

way. The expectations which provide each actor his distinctive tools, uniforms, pay and other perquisites serve to remind him and others who he is, what he does, what his obligations are, and on what his pride and integrity may be based. This aspect of status concerns dignity.

4. Influence and Obligation: The Requirement of Reciprocity. One who asserts status also incurs an obligation. Greater latitude to prevail in interaction makes an actor's behavior more consequential, both for the persons immediately involved and for their organization. If one person is expected to defer to the status of another for the sake of the coherence and success of an organization, then the other, also for the sake of the organization's persistence, must bear some reciprocal obligation. In interaction, that obligation cannot be owed to some abstraction of "organization"; it is owed by the one who asserts status to another who defers to it. Further, the equation of deference and obligation is worked out in the immediate business of the relationship. In proportion to one's yielding, another owes in kind.

While the link between influence and obligation typically is raised in a moral context, it rests on a practical base. A school must attain some minimum of cooperation and proficiency in some of its activities if it is to persist and succeed in its environment. If teachers and students defer to the principal's authority and ability to make a schedule and the principal can and does make a schedule, then the right students meet the right teachers in the right places at the right times. The school thus organizes the movements of its members. If teachers defer to their respective assignments and training, and to the principal for the sake of coherence, and if all of the actors actually display their training and carry out their assignments, then the school can organize its curriculum. The more skillfully and appropriately the school's participants defer to one another, and the more that they display the qualities to which they defer, the more proficient their organization becomes.

Conversely, if one actor fails to defer to another's skill, or defers to another's skill and the other fails to display that skill, then their proficiency declines. If persons defer to authority but that authority is not applied appropriately, then they are likely to find themselves at odds or in disarray. If one defers to another's virtue but that virtue is not displayed, then the moral order which they share is diminished. If teachers look to the principal to set the tone for the school but that tone is punitive and stingy, both they and the school may suffer. The obligations of influence have a practical basis: the preservation and success of the organization which grants the influence.

5. Reciprocity and Instructional Leadership. The principle that social organization requires both deference to some quality and a display of that quality is relevant to a variety of present and proposed practices in schools. One implication is that a master teacher--one who is deferred to by other teachers in regard to teaching practice--must be more than a highly skilled teacher. The deference accorded to the master teacher by others would also depend on the master teacher's wise use of it. The master teacher's obligation is not merely to be skillful as a teacher, but also to behave appropriately in the immediate interaction with a colleague. Skills in leadership and advisement, separate from skills in teaching, are called for.

The requirement of status reciprocity applies also to the observation, supervision, and evaluation of teachers. Effective supervision of teaching does not occur if the teacher does not to some degree and in some way defer to the supervisor in regard to the acts of teaching. This might be accomplished partly by listening to a comment, reading a reference, or taking training, but the final test is a change in the teacher's behavior in the classroom. Supervision which does not alter teachers' behavior in the classroom is a waste of their time and their supervisor's.

If the teacher is to respond to a principal, on any basis other than a naked exercise of the principal's formal authority, the principal must meet the reciprocal obligation to deliver as a supervisor. The teacher's yielding with regard to teaching is not balanced by a principal's skill in budgeting or scheduling or disciplining students. In receipt of the teacher's deference in regard to teaching, the principal must display the capacity to render a useful, thoughtful, fair, and helpful appraisal of the teacher's work. The more rigorous and consequential the supervision, the greater the deference on the teacher's part and the greater the obligation on the principal's. Without theorizing, teachers tend to put the matter as "Who's he to evaluate me?" The point of the preceding development was to show that the comment is not a side concern; it is a fundamental question of organization.

The requirement of status reciprocity applies in functional status relations as well. The reciprocal obligations may be met at a relative distance--mathematics teachers and English teachers cooperate to a degree simply by attending to their respective subjects. While each must attend adequately to her subject, the interaction between them need not be demanding. But it can be quite demanding. If the members of a math department are to assure that topics are taught in some specified order and that students have mastered one topic before they proceed to the next, they must cooperate closely. They must know more of each other's work, more often take initiative with or defer to each other to maintain the desired relations among the topics. If social studies teachers and

English teachers defer to each other in respect of their different assignments and training, and if they display that training, they might organize a rigorous program for teaching expository writing both as a general skill and as a tool of a discipline. In the absence of either the deference to skill or the display of skill, however, the program cannot be organized.

In the observation and coaching of a teacher, whether by a principal or by another teacher, a functional status relation pertains. The teacher has his chalkboard, the observer her clipboard. These are the visible signs of different roles, domains and skills. In their interaction, two important questions may be raised, and often are in practice. First, what should each yield to the other? Second, and in recognition of that yielding, what does each owe to the other?

Considerable lore about supervision, clinical superivison, and peer coaching address these questions. For example, the teacher may yield to the observer's capacity, unhindered by the task of teaching, to notice what is going on in the classroom. Reciprocally, the observer owes the teacher some kind of record of what went on in the class so that the teacher can exercise some independent judgement of the evidence. Or the teacher might defer to the observer's greater knowledge and skill. In that case, the observer owes the teacher an insightful analysis and sound options for improvement.

The requirement of reciprocity might be met in a variety of ways, at different levels of intensity, rigor, and consequences of the interaction. But if that requirement is not met, then the relationship is degraded. One or the other party has been surprised, exploited, or let down. Less will be yielded and owed in future, and the prospects that the relation will contribute to improved teaching will be reduced.

6. Scalar and Functional Status Intertwine. The scalar and functional status systems intertwine. Compared to an English teacher, a head of counseling may have greater scalar status, more of certain perquisites, greater access to the principal, and a greater ability to get the floor in a meeting of the school's staff. But if the matter at hand is teaching, and particularly the teaching of English, the head of counseling is likely to defer to the teacher's specific function and distinctive skills and tools.

In the supervision and evaluation of teachers, a principal invokes both functional and scalar status. The principal bears greater authority; the teacher and principal play different parts in the teaching and the observation of the lesson. It is possible that the scalar and functional aspects of the principal's relation with the teacher are inconsistent. Boocock (1972) and others have

argued that supervision by administrators is not "conducive to free and frank interpersonal communication" of the sort expected in a functional relation. The implication is that teachers should be observed and advised by each other or by some other party who holds no consequential authority over teachers. Perhaps.

Note, however, that the requirement of status reciprocity applies whether principals observe teachers, teachers observe teachers, or someone else observes teachers. In every case, useful observation requires the observer to assert some knowledge and skill in regard to teaching and requires the teacher to defer and respond to such assertions. The least assertive observation and feedback systems require the would-be observer to make the substantial assertion that s/he has the knowledge and skill to produce a useful descriptive record of the complex, fast-moving, and subtle business called teaching. If the relationship is to amount to anything, the teacher must defer and respond to that assertion by examining the record and doing something about it in the classroom. Otherwise, why bother?

Teaching, improving teaching, and helping a teacher to improve do not become simpler or easier because a consultant or teacher rather than a principal plays the role of observer. Both face problems, and have solutions.

The requirements of reciprocity for both scalar and functional status are met by a principal who demonstrates considerable knowledge of teaching and who approaches observation with an energy and care which justify the teacher's deference. Put another way, when a principal knows enough about teaching to give both insightful praise and cogent criticism, and when a principal works as hard to help a teacher improve as to record a teacher's faults, then the apparent contradiction between scalar and functional status considerations, between supervision and advice, fades. The relation becomes more consequential, for good or for ill. From the teacher's point of view, free and frank interpersonal communication becomes the surest path toward both bureaucratic security and professional proficiency. For the principal, skillful and helpful observation becomes the surest path to preserving the status <u>differences</u> between principal and teacher.

When teachers observe teachers, the risk is to their status <u>equality</u>. If teachers observe each other regularly, they are likely to discover that one or the other is a more skillful teacher, or a more skillful observer, or both. This scalar status difference is based on knowledge and skill rather than on authority, but it is no less consequential. Teachers' status with both their peers and others is at stake. If unequal and consequential status is a barrier to free and frank interpersonal

communication, then that barrier is present in peer assistance among teachers. The initial fact of nominal status equality between teachers does not remove status considerations. Further, the initial status equality is a barrier to forming the relationship in the first place. On what basis would either teacher take the initiative to form it? While the etiquette and tactics for teachers as observers may be different from those for principals as observers, nominal status equality neither removes the demanding requirements of the relationship nor removes threats to status.

In similar fashion, the efficient and dignified aspects of status relations are intertwined. In asserting scalar status, one lays claim to greater authority, skill, information, or rectitude than another, and thus claims--implicitly or explicitly--a greater right to various perquisites. Conversely, to defer to scalar status is to attribute greater authority, skill, or information to another, and to reduce one's claims to those same resources. In functional status relations, the boundaries of two actors' respective domains, their importance in the organization, and their resources and perquisites are at issue. Thus, the assignment of classrooms to teachers may be affected both by efficient considerations (whether the classroom appropriately equipped or located for the classes which meet there) and by dignified considerations (whether, seen as a teacher's perk, the classroom is attractive).

The term "cooperation" tends to be reserved for unusual instances or degrees of collaboration which change a school or which contribute most visibly towards its effective performance. What is accomplished daily is taken for granted along with the requirements of its accomplishment. The tip of an iceberg is taken to be the whole. The daily production of the minimum characteristics of a school by itself requires extensive cooperation,and thus constant assertion of and deference to scalar or functional status of efficient or dignified sorts. On the most ordinary day, the participants in a school are engaged in a high stakes game in which the school's maintenance and productivity, the prestige and domains of the groups within the schools, and the stature and resources of the members are all at stake.

6. Social Income and Social Wealth: Achieved and Ascribed Status. In the view of norms presented earlier, adequate performance of a role brings a social return: the approval of others. That return can be likened to income. In the same analogy, status can be thought of as social wealth.

Some of that wealth, or status, is ascribed: it goes with the position almost regardless of performance. A principal may perform well or poorly, but will always retain some rights to initiate

activities and to expect deference from others. The status comes with the position, like inherited wealth.

Status can also be achieved by performance. The social income of approval can be saved by the actor as social wealth--achieved status. As such status can be earned, it also can be lost, by consistent or extraordinary failure to perform. And status can be spent, for purposes. By performing beyond the minimum expectation, an actor can earn chips and spend them, get IOU's, and call them in to get something done. Principals who work the system on behalf of their schools often are dealing in chips of status and the material stuff that goes with it. Status facilitates cooperation.

Most narrowly and situationally, status can be said to accompany role. The norms which allocate duties to the role are complemented by norms which govern its cooperation with other roles. As one may generalize about typical roles, one may generalize about the operations of status in typical cases. As a set of roles goes with and characterizes a position, a set of statuses does as well. And in the same way that the expectations for a position depend in part on the characteristics of its incumbent, a generalized status can become one of the incumbent's personal characteristics. A master teacher in one school does not become a novice by moving to another. Some aspects of the status which the master has accrued can be carried.

As the role system distributes the duties of a group in a complex and subtle way through a body of expectations for various performances, the status system lays out an equally complex and subtle set of rules for initiative and deference which permit the actors to work together in a going concern. As role and status are defined by the expressed and enforced expectations of others, all participants in the school experience their roles and their accompanying status as control: requirements and limitations on behavior.

But for reasons already given, e.g., the possibility of emphasizing one relevant value or group over another, neither the role system nor the status system is fully coherent. Both are fallible, either as guides or rules. Here lies another source of freedom and opportunity for the members of the organization. Depending on their roles and status, members of the social system have different rights and opportunities to take initiative. But all of them have such rights and opportunities, among which is initiative disguised as deference. A teacher who politely asks a supervisor for the information and analysis which justify the supervisor's evaluation of the teacher is showing deference to the supervisor's judgement, but also is conveying an expectation for the supervisor's performance.

7. Status and Change. Efforts to improve schools contain many with threats to status. Improvement requires change in expectations for performance; one may fail to satisfy the new or more stringent requirements. Improvement may require a person to deal differently with others, so status may be at stake. Improvement requires cooperation, placing an additional burden on the status system.

In regard to school improvement, a variety of questions arises. Do the school's norms provide a way in which an English teacher and a math teacher together can examine teaching practices which they share? Do gains in skill as a teacher allow that teacher to achieve greater status, of either a dignified or efficient sort? Does a highly skillful teacher get a more desirable classroom? Can a teacher who masters a topic or a technique then guide other teachers in doing likewise? Does a teacher's attainment lead other teachers to defer to that teacher in any respect for the sake of improvement? Is the principal's prerogative to evaluate teaching understood to impose an obligation to use that prerogative skillfully, to study teaching, and to evaluate it thoughtfully and wisely? In general, do a school's norms allocate status in accordance with the tasks and facts of improvement, or in some other fashion? With regard to status, is the school organized for improvement?

III. INFORMAL ORGANIZATION AS AN OPEN SYSTEM

While the informal organization of the school is a complex system in its own right, it is neither the whole of the school nor independent. It is an open system. It influences and is influenced by its setting, which is made up both of other aspects of the school and of the enviroment in which the school as a whole resides.

A. Informal Organization is One Aspect of the School.

Without regard to its surroundings, a school might be described as an intricate organization combining both formal and informal structures and expectations, facilities and resources, and several categories of personnel and clients with various characteristics who are organized or not organized in a variety of ways. That view takes in more than can be organized or used here. Several aspects of the school are being set aside for the sake of looking more closely at social organization.

Materials, for example, may be a necessary component of action, or the object of an authoritative decision, or a perquisite of a role, or a reward for adequate performance. In some economic or technical perspectives on the school, materials and similar resources might assume a central place. In the view of schools as informal organizations, the school's facilities, materials and other physical resources are understood to be present and relevant, but are treated as complements or adjuncts of position, role, status, and the dealings among actors in the school.

The school and its district have formal arrangements such as written policies, organization charts, formal delegations of authority, job descriptions, and contracts between the district and a teachers' association. These are regarded, by way of Jay Jackson's argument, as being relevant to the analysis when they are reflected in expectations informally held or shared among the school's members. Thus, formal arrangements are pushed to the background and considered by way of their reflections in and possible influences on the informal organization of the school.

The school is made up of persons, complex entities in their own right. They have personal traits, perspectives, and preferences; are capable of invention; and tend to behave in idiosyncratic fashions which may fail to correspond to the rules, principles, and generalizations which others assume, promote, attempt to impose, or try to derive. Persons in the school are influenced by its social organization. They also may influence it. Most of their personal characteristics will be ignored here. Their

habits and initiatives, together with the meaning which they attach to both, remain in the analysis.

B. The School As a System of Groups.

In the view of schools as informal organizations, a school may be seen as a collection or system of potential groups: administrators, department heads, teachers, members of departments, union members, persons who sponsor students' extracurricular activities, persons working together in a particular project or committee, persons who play pinochle every day at lunch, persons who use a particular lounge, those who smoke and those who don't, those who bring lunches and those who eat in the cafeteria, the untenured teachers or the old timers, members of racial or ethnic minorities, and so on. Some of the groups may be large and others quite small.

Some of these groups may have only the minimal features of a group, sharing weak expectations for a few sorts of acts in situations and barely distinguishing positions, roles, and status. Other groups may share extensive and strongly felt expectations across a broad range of acts in situations and have clearly defined positions, roles, and status relations.

The memberships of these groups may and are likely to overlap. An actor in the school may occupy a few or many positions in a few or in many groups, and may have a harder or easier time reconciling the many roles s/he plays. The school's actors and groups may be pursuing a broad range of values which may or may not be consistent in their demands on behavior in a particular instance. Thus, expectations regarding the same matters may vary from group to group, along with the intensity with which those expectations are held, with the relative prestige of the groups, and with their ability to offer much or little to their members and prospective members.

As a system of groups, the school may be coherent or disorganized; may be calm, frenetic, or fraught with conflict; and may be successful or unsuccessful with regard to any of many values which are at stake in its operations. It presents, to those who would lead it or study it, a complex puzzle.

C. Informal Organization and the School's Environment.

A school operates in the setting composed by its school district, by the community and economy it serves, and by the society and culture in which it operates. All these may place both demands and limits on the school and on its informal organization.

A limited accounting of some portions of that environment is provided by extending the view of informal organization to include relevant groups based primarily outside the school.

Members of a school's staff often deal with external groups which have access to the school. Groups of parents and boosters, persons interested in the contents of the school library, persons interested in the use of their taxes, persons interested in selling rings and pictures and persons interested in selling drugs all hold expectations for, make demands upon, or present tasks and problems to the staff of the school.

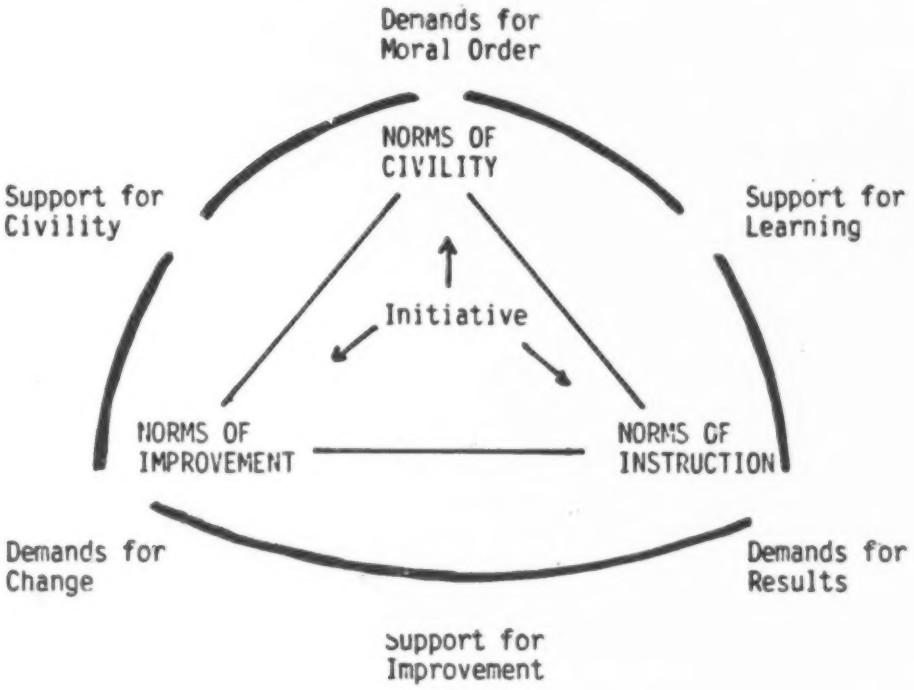
Members of the school's staff also are members of groups based outside the school. Families, professional associations, child care cooperatives, and car pools all can influence the behavior of the staff in the school. External groups' expectations and demands must be balanced with those of groups based in the school. Likewise, the school is felt, by way of the overlapping memberships of its staff, in groups outside the school.

Like its other internal arrangements, a school's informal organization is likely to reflect external forces. As the school may be characterized as a complex system of groups, so also may its environment. While this view of matters cannot capture some kinds and sources of external influence on the school, it does incorporate many of the direct influences on the staff, and those can be examined in terms consistent with the remainder of the analysis.

D. Control, Freedom, and Opportunity.

Many important features of schools can be seen in their norms, their expected and usual ways of doing the work of the school. Many important features of schools may be seen (Figure 3-2) in their norms of civility, the ways of dealing humanely and fairly; their norms of instruction, the ways of teaching students; and their norms of improvement, the ways in which the school and its staff get better at what they do. By virtue of its norms, a school maintains stable patterns of action and it consequences. The norms are not altered at will; the school is distinct both from its members and from external parties.

Figure 3-2. Schools as Open Organizations



At the same time, schools are not fixed by their norms. As informal social organizations, schools are open systems: they influence and are influenced by their participants and by their environments. In the preceding sections, those environments have been described in terms of external groups which act upon the school and groups which cross the school's boundaries. These groups may make a variety of demands upon the school, and may support it. The norms of civility, of instruction, and of improvement may be shaped by combinations of external demands and supports and internal initiatives--leadership--by members of schools' staffs.

The informal organization of a school is a complex system of action and influence which presents three faces to each of the school's participants. One face is the social necessity, exerted by the expectations and sanctions of others in the organization, to behave in particular ways in specific situations. To some appreciable extent, the school controls its members.

The second face is a degree of freedom, which is provided by the imperfections, inconsistencies, and complexity of the social system. The multitude of relevant values, the slipperiness of language, the variability not only in the content but also in the intensity and degree of consensus in others' expectations, and the presence of several groups all give an actor options to act in arenas of indifference, to interpret expectations one way or another, to invoke one or another value pertaining to the work, to defy weakly held expectations, to play one group against another, and otherwise to act freely.

The third face is opportunity--to employ one's position and status in the informal organization to influence others, to invoke norms pertaining to others' behavior, to extend the organization into areas it does not presently regulate, and to change informal organization by the tools which it provides: initiative, negotiation, and discussion.

By comparison with some formal and rational ideal of organization, the school is, as Weick (1976) suggests, a "loose assemblage" in which authority and technical matters are problematic sources either of organizational maintenance or of organizational change. Taken on its own terms, however, as a way of pursuing and reconciling diverse goals and groups by human means, the school is an accomplishment of no small magnitude. It is resilient, adaptable to diverse circumstances, and open to initiative.

In the informal organization of the school, there are opportunities to lead. While the opportunities and the tactics may vary by position in the organization, such opportunities exist for all positions in the organization. Instructional leadership may be exerted by administrators, by department heads, and by teachers, through tactics suited to their positions, roles, status, and group memberships in the school organization. Following chapters attempt to describe what those opportunities were, and how they were used, in eight secondary schools.

Chapter 4
IS THERE INSTRUCTIONAL LEADERSHIP IN SECONDARY SCHOOLS?
Findings from Five Case Studies

The power of the school principal to shape the perspectives and practices of teaching has more often been claimed than it has been systematically described or closely analyzed. In this two-year study, the assumptions and methods of role theory were employed to guide the description and analysis of "instructional leadership" among secondary school principals. The study's aims are to advance understanding of the principal's influence on teaching and learning in secondary schools and to contribute to a practical program of training and support for school administrators.

The study was arranged in two stages. A first stage of one year made a focused ethnographic study (Erickson, 1977; Fienberg, 1977) of instructional leadership patterns in five secondary schools. In this stage, researchers conducted interviews, observations and informal conversations with administrators and teachers in four high schools and one junior high school.

The second stage involved six high schools and two junior high schools. The main work of the second stage was to convert the qualitative information of the first stage into survey measures of norms of initiative and collegiality and to apply them to all teachers, department chairs, and administrators in each school. With that much broader base of respondents, the aims were to describe the schools' norms of interaction about instruction; to characterize the potential for instructional leadership that resides in the positions of administrator, department chair, and teacher; and to identify concrete and recurrent instructional leadership principles and practices that might be employed in many schools. Throughout, the study has been guided by the accumulated theory and research on schools as organizations, with particular focus on norms, roles and status (Gross, Mason and McEachern, 1958; Jackson, 1966).

I. STUDY ORIGINS AND AIMS

This chapter reports selected findings from the first year's work, and traces the development of the interpretation from an early focus on administrative influence to an eventual focus on the structure of leadership and the organization of schools for purposes of steady improvement.

A. Points of Departure.

Five basic ideas guided the work in its first year:

First, schools that prove successful, even under difficult circumstances, appear to be characterized by certain workplace habits and perspectives. In these schools, teachers (and others) work closely together as colleagues (a norm of collegiality) and teaching practices are held open to scrutiny, discussion and refinement (a norm of continuous improvement). The advantages of collegial work, as teachers describe them, seem clear: an expanded pool of ideas and materials, enhanced capacity for handling complex problems, and opportunity for intellectual stimulation and emotional solidarity are among them. Thus, some schools more than others are organized to permit the sort of "reflection-in-action" that Sykes (1983) argues has been largely absent from professional preparation and professional work in schools. Such norms appear to be both powerful and rare (Little, 1981; Feiman-Nemser and Floden, 1984; Lortie, 1975; Cohen, 1981).

The use of the term "norm" here highlights the social and collective nature of these expectations. Without denying that there are differences among individuals (i.e., that some persons are more curious, self-confident, independent than others), teachers' accounts reveal shared expectations to be powerful organizational forces. They are not simply matters for individual preference; they are, instead, based in shared knowledge of the behavior--the talk and the action--that is appropriately part of being a teacher and being a teacher in this school (Feiman-Nemser and Floden, 1984). Such shared knowledge is accumulated in the course of daily interaction on the job. It is displayed in small and large ways, day after day, as teachers go about their work. It is the basis on which persons interact with others and on which they interpret what they see and hear (Kjolseth, 1972).

Second, instructional leadership is bound up with administrators' (and others') ability to build and sustain these norms. Principals, by virtue of their position, have rights of initiative that others do not. By their performance, they contribute to--or erode--the relevant norms. By what they say and do, reward and defend, administrators convey a set of values,

create (or limit) certain opportunities and control certain consequences.

Third, the requirements and demands of leadership in secondary schools are confounded (and compounded) by size, curriculum complexity, and the scale of administrative obligations. Anticipating that a broader structure of leadership would be required, we began by concentrating not only on principals but also on assistant principals and department chairs.

Fourth, without abandoning the view that leadership requires some irreducible element of character--a willingness to act with courage and will in difficult situations--we argue that the central patterns of instructional leadership can in fact be described at the level of principle and practice, that they can be learned and taught and deliberately organized, and that they can be made part of a program of the selection, training and support of building administrators.

Fifth, previous research has led us to believe that some interactions more than others have potential for developing schools with the collective capacity for improvement (Little, 1981). While leaving open the opportunity to be surprised, we nonetheless concentrated on certain key practices, particularly those that brought persons closest to the crucial problems of teaching and learning. These included practices of classroom observation, collaborative curriculum development, shared planning and preparation of lessons and materials, regular and frequent talk about teaching (Little, 1982).

B. Contributions and Limitations of Past Research.

In myriad and powerful ways, researchers argue, the principal shapes the school as a workplace. Out of case study and other research over the past ten to fifteen years has emerged increasingly persuasive confirmation that the principal's role is both central and complex (Sarason,1971; Bossert et al., 1981; Persell, Cookson and Lyons, 1982; Greenfield, 1982; Metz, 1978; and others). These core concepts of influence and complexity form the major resource in past work and a fruitful point of departure for the study reported here. While the major contribution of past research has been to illustrate the "centrality" and complexity of the principal's role, the accumulated body of work might be strengthened in several ways.

First, our understanding would be enhanced by greater specificity in the description of actual role performance. Summarizing their findings on the role of the principal in curriculum reform, Fullan and Pomfret (1977, p. 384) acknowledge that "most of the...studies used global measures of leadership,

and so we do not know the specific nature of this role." The studies reported by Fullan and Pomfret are not atypical in this respect, though there have been recent gains (Dwyer et al., 1983; Morris et al., 1981).

Second, our knowledge and practice would be strengthened by systematic attempts to distinguish the role repertoires of elementary school principals from those of secondary school principals. Little (1981), for example, found that elementary school principals were able to foster shared work among teachers by conducting weekly inservices and by making regular, frequent observations. In secondary schools in the same district, sheer size, curriculum complexity and diversity of interests made a comparable set of role performances problematic.

Berman and Pauly (1975), reporting the results of the Rand Corporation's study of school change, note that elementary school principals were more often viewed as "effective" and "supportive" by the teachers they supervised than were secondary principals. An examination of the items used to judge "support," however, reveals that the measure may be weighted in favor of elementary school principals, e.g., by emphasizing the principal's direct contributions of classroom ideas and materials. Principals in secondary schools fostered shared work by shuffling schedules to permit teachers to develop and test an idea in teams. The prevailing view that secondary principals are less directly involved with matters of curriculum and instruction has led us to ask by what mechanisms they do work to organize schools for influence on instruction, curriculum and classroom organization.

Third, existing research and future inquiry would be strengthened by a clear explication of underlying theoretical assumptions and by a theoretically or empirically developed rationale for concentrating on selected aspects of the administrator's role. Beyond a broad assumption (derived from organizational theory) that certain rights of initiative accrue to positions of authority, rarely does one encounter a theoretical perspective and analytic method that permit one to detect underlying conceptual principles of leadership in the tangle of moment-by-moment interactions in the school day. More systematic use of explicit theoretical perspectives would add coherence to a program of research and would increase the chances that apparently contradictory findings might be reconciled (or the sources of their contradictions understood). (See Rowan, Dwyer and Bossert, 1982; and Bossert et al., 1981.)

Prior investigation of teachers' work relationships and practices of "learning on the job" (Little, 1981) initiated a line of work that, expanded to the more thorough exploration of principals' role performance, contributes to existing knowledge and to practical application in precisely the manner just suggested. Norms of collegiality and experimentation, as

contributors to school success, serve here as a focus and create the possibility for theoretical coherence, situational specificity, and practical application.

By a combination of position and performance, principals and other building administrators can initiate or inhibit, build or erode, expand or contain norms that bear critically upon school success (Dwyer et al., 1983; Little, 1981; Keedy, 1982). The central question then is, By what specific interactions, in what situations, does an administrator affect those norms?

We are less interested here in the distinctions between broadly effective and ineffective actions than in exposing how generally effective tactics can be marshalled specifically in support of norms of collegiality and experimentation. These two powerful norms are forged in the course of daily work; they arise not primarily out of classroom experience but in critical ways out of teachers' interactions with each other and with administrators. They appear to be maintained (or not) by the specific nature of administrators' announced expectations, their routine allocation of administrative resources and rewards, their daily encounters with teachers in meetings, classrooms, and hallways.

II. CASE STUDIES IN FIVE SCHOOLS.

The first year's study was conducted in five secondary schools (four high schools and a junior high school) in two districts. In negotiations with district personnel, we sought schools in which administrative teams had a reputation for exerting influence upon instructional quality, declared themselves interested in exploring the limits of their administrative roles, and were amenable to devoting their time, knowledge and energy to the proposed study. The schools themselves were to reflect the range of ordinary circumstances that principals might encounter (see Table 1).

A. Small City District.

This district serves a population of approximately 35,000 in a primarily rural area approximately forty miles north of a major metropolitan center. The local economy is based largely in agriculture, but the area has for many years also been home to several high-technology industries. Four of the state's major universities are located within fifty miles. The area is socioeconomically diverse with a relatively small, mostly Hispanic, minority population. The district consists of seventeen elementary schools, four junior high schools and three high schools.

While administrators here are selected by the superintendent and approved by the board, principals have considerable latitude to recruit their own assistant principals, thus creating the opportunity (perhaps even the obligation) to shape an administrative team with shared views and complementary skills. Most of the district's seventeen secondary administrators meet monthly in an informal evening "study group" session. In this district, where secondary schools hold a reputation as innovators, one high school and one junior high school participated in the first year study.

1. Daniels Junior High School (School 4). Located in the town's original (and aging) high school, this junior high school serves a diverse population of almost 900 students, of whom 38 percent receive free or reduced-price lunch. During the twelve-year tenure of the principal and under his leadership, the faculty has established a reputation for a high standard of professional competence, initiative and innovation. Their collective efforts to improve their understanding and practice of teaching have been reflected in consistent gains in achievement test scores, particularly in English and math, and a marked reduction in disciplinary problems.

Table 1

SUMMARY OF SITE CHARACTERISTICS

School Characteristics					Administrator Characteristics			
District/ School	Total enrollmt.	Percent minority	Achieve- ment	Faculty size	Staffing pattern	Sex	Race/ ethnic	Tenure in building
BIG CITY								
Andrews High School	1248	48%	High	76	Principal	F	White	3
					AP Instr.	M	White	7
					AP Disc.	M	Black	3
					AP Pupil	M	Indian	1
Bolton High School	1636	78%	Low	106	Principal	M	Hispanic	4
					AP Instr.	M	White	2
					AP Disc.	M	White	4
					AP Pupil	F	Hispanic	7
Carlson High School	1675	41%	High	89	Principal	M	White	3
					AP Instr.	M	White	18
					AP Disc.	M	Black	4
					AP Pupil	F	White	3
SMALL CITY								
Emerson High School	929	9%	High	50	Principal	M	White	3
					Asst. Princ.	M	White	8
					Asst. Princ.	M	White	3
Daniels Junior High	882	11%	High	49	Principal	M	White	12
					Asst. Princ.	F	White	1

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This school reveals a repertoire of instructional leadership practices that have been established and expanded over time and articulated in detail by both administrators and teachers. Further, it indicates how relationships develop among teachers, between teachers and administrators and among administrators, as norms of collegiality and improvement take hold in a building.

2. Emerson High School (School 5). This high school draws one-third of its approximately 900 students from Daniels Junior High School. In the past three years, the principal and assistant principals have displayed interest in acting as instructional leaders by working directly with one another and with teachers to improve classroom practices. Because this sort of venture in leadership is more recent here than at Daniels, but is necessarily influenced by its example, this school provides an opportunity to examine first stages in the development of the skills, opportunities and consequences of instructional leadership. Further, it offers an opportunity to compare strategies in a junior high school and high school with comparable populations of students and a single set of district priorities, expectations and resources.

B. Big City District.

This urban district serves an ethnically diverse population of roughly 500,000 with eighty-one elementary schools, eighteen middle schools and ten high schools. One combination middle-high school has opened within the last three years; nine schools have been closed as enrollment has declined and population has shifted to the city's periphery. The district has operated under a variety of court-ordered desegregation plans for the past fourteen years, and a broad range of policy and program decisions remain subject to court approval.

The teachers' organization is strong in this district; the contract agreement closely governs practices of teacher selection, transfer, scheduling and class assignments, and includes provisions for teacher evaluation and staff development. Administrators in the district are nominated by the central administration, with selections subject to board approval. Principals have little influence over the selection and placement of assistant principals, and the membership of some building level teams has changed frequently.

Three of the district's high schools participated in the first year's study. Each enrolls between one thousand and two thousand students, and has from seventy to one hundred teachers. Each has a substantial minority student population (over 40 percent) and an experienced, stable teaching staff.

1. Andrews High School (School 1). Once a vocationally-oriented high school with an all-Black enrollment, this school has emerged with a reputation for being academically strong and for preserving a high degree of harmony among its now diverse student population. The principal is one of the district's few women secondary administrators. In part, this school was nominated on the basis of others' impression that the principal is skilled in garnering support from faculty and community.

2. Bolton High School (School 2). This high school is ethnically mixed but socioeconomically homogeneous, drawing most of its students from lower income areas of the city. In his four years here, the principal has encouraged higher expectations for student achievement and attendance, organized staff time and responsibilities to permit greater concentration on curriculum and instruction, and moved toward more focused classroom observation and teacher evaluation. This school presents an opportunity to explore the limits and possibilities of instructional leadership under difficult circumstances: low test scores, low expectations for students' performance or future prospects; an established faculty for whom career incentives hold little appeal, and whose prerogatives are protected by a strong union agreement.

3. Carlson High School (School 3). Housed in a relatively new building, this once all-white school drew an affluent, middle-class population of students prior to court-ordered desegregation. Teaching assignments here were (and still are) considered "plums." In recent years, minority enrollment and socioeconomic diversity have increased. The school is now about 41 percent minority, of whom a substantial number are bused in from one of the city's lowest income areas.

Teachers and students alike refer to Carlson as being oriented to "college prep", citing as their nearest competition some nearby suburban high schools. The school has had two "high powered" women principals in recent years and is now led by a man experienced in the principalship at all levels, nearing retirement, and by his own and others' accounts, markedly different in his approach. He protests that he is not the instructional leader in the building, leaving open the question of how influences on instruction come to be organized in a school where instruction has continued to produce impressive results. In contrast to Bolton High School, where the administrators' challenge has been to promote professional improvement in the face of low student performance, the challenge here may be to sustain professional commitment and foster adaptability as the student population becomes increasingly heterogeneous.

C. A Range of Conditions and Practices.

Interviews, observations, and documentary evidence from these five schools generated over 4,000 pages of transcribed interviews, Q-sort tables, and field notes in the first stage of work. Analysis of this material suggests that the critical collegial practices identified by Littile in 1981--talk about teaching, observation of teaching, shared preparation of materials, and training together and training each other--are recurrent in data from the first year of this study.

In her previous study, Little also identified four general categories of initiative in regard to instruction and collegial interaction: describing and calling for a practice, modeling or enacting that practice, rewarding the practice, and defending it against internal and external pressures. These also appear to be sound and useful categories in light of this project's case study data. A fifth category of initiative--the strategic use of the school's material and human resources--also claims attention. In part, the deployment of school resources (materials, schedules, special arrangements, time, facilities) constitutes a system of rewards and will be treated that way. But such allocations also constitute support, an additional category for analysis of acts of leadership and initiative.

1. Data Analysis. Qualitative data have been mined by preparing a three-by-five card or computer record for every statement, observation, or reply which falls into the focus of the study and which describes what happens--and what sense is made of what happens--in each school. Like the transcripts and notes, these cards are organized in the categories of (1) observation of and feedback on teaching, (2) training together and training each other, (3) shared preparation of materials, and (4) talk about teaching. Each card is coded according to the category of initiative--(1) describing and calling for a practice, (2) enacting or modeling a practice, (3) sanctioning or supporting a practice, and (4) defending a practice. Finally, all cards are sorted by school and cross-referenced to the original transcripts or field notes. Throughout, readers rely on analytic principles of recurrence, reasonable contrast, and apparent function to reveal practices which are not adequately classified by those categories (Little, 1981; Pittenger, Hockett and Danehy, 1960).

Thus is created a reduced data set which can be organized in any of several ways--by critical practice, by type of initiative, by school, by position (principal, assistant principal, department chair, and teacher), and by other categories which may appear as the data are examined.

2. Leadership Strategies. In the literature, leadership strategies range from the bureaucratic to the scientifically

rational to the charismatic (Bossert et al., 1981). In particular, instructional leadership may invoke a picture of heroic, charismatic or symbolic acts which, though rare, tend to personify a goal or establish a vision in some dramatic way. Such acts are undeniably a part of leadership. At the same time, there is the growing recognition that substantial accomplishments in school improvement require initiative, tenacity and support of a more pedestrian sort. It is simply implausible that charisma alone could improve a school. It seems likely instead that the outcomes to which charisma points are achieved by daily, persistent exertions in the desired directions, and that these daily exertions are both more describable and more reproducible than the dramatic moments and grand gestures. They thus merit close attention. Bossert et al. (1981) report:

> Principals in effective schools, as well as other administrators, apparently devote more time to the coordination and control of instruction and are more skillful at the tasks involved. They do more observations of teachers' work, discuss more work problems with teachers, are more supportive of teachers' efforts to improve, especially by distributing materials and promoting inservice activities, and are more active in setting up teacher and program evaluation procedures than principals in less effective schools (p. 21).

3. The Study School Administrators and their Strategies. As a group, the seventeen administrators in these five schools are equally intelligent, caring, and committed. Most have shown the courage to act with vision and deliberation in tough situations. They are not, however, equally oriented toward instruction in their day-to-day work, nor are their schools equally organized to exert deliberate influence on curriculum and instruction. Four characteristic patterns or images of leadership emerge, each reflecting assumptions about teaching, teachers, schools and, therefore, the proper role of leaders.

Some administrators base their leadership strategies in assumptions about teachers, seeing leadership as a matter of "letting good teachers teach." In this mode, the aim is to have a smoothly running school that provides an orderly environment for learning. Some administrators take initiative to remove distractions from or disruptions to teaching. This is a pattern consistent with the description of "buffering" provided by Bossert et al. (1981). It is the characteristic pattern of two of the four high schools.

Other administrators talk less about teachers than about teaching. Their apparent assumption is that teaching practices vary and can be improved, and that it is a part of leadership to require and support improvement. Two main tactics are evident. By

the first, which we have labeled "going to bat," administrators take a strong stand on a set of ideas or methods, taking it upon themselves to announce expectations for their schools and their staff. Some of them proceed even when they are quite alone in stating and acting on the expectations. That is, administrators' chosen initiatives may fly directly in the face of well-established and powerful norms regarding both instruction and the scrutiny of instruction. By a second tactic, which we have labeled "infiltration," administrators find or create arenas of interest and support in which they can move to forge agreements on teaching practices or curriculum. The intent of such a tactic is to avoid direct confrontation with immovables while testing the limits and possibilities of an idea.

By either tactic, administrators directly involve themselves in training, seminars with teaching, and classroom observation. At its best, a strategy of direct involvement engages principals and teachers in frequent, shared work on central problems of curriculum and instruction; it helps to insure that management and policy decisions will be informed by or driven by shared agreements about instructional priorities. Judging by teachers' comments, it is a pattern that is eminently satisfying (even while sometimes taxing) when carried off well. At its worst, this approach outstrips the capacity of an administrator to act knowledgeably and skillfully in interactions with teachers, spreads administrators too thin with too little to show for it, saps energy and erodes mutual respect. In any case, such a strategy poses tremendous problems of organization and scale. This pattern has been successfully applied in the study's single junior high school, attempted with uneven success in one high school, and tried with little success at yet another high school.

Finally, some administrators concentrate on cultivating relations among the staff that would increase their collective capacity to help one another to improve. Least actively, the administrator strives only to encourage "communication." Most actively, the administrator sets out to introduce new routines (e.g., the use of common planning periods for shared planning, or peer observation) or to modify roles and responsibilities (e.g., by delegating supervision responsibilities to department heads.) By organizing groups and promoting teachers as leaders, administrators succeed in "making the school larger than one person" (Lipsitz, 1983). They search for common ground, existing agreements and potential partners. At its best, this strategy expands the intellectual and other resources devoted to school improvement while offering new professional opportunities and rewards to teachers. By distributing instructional leadership more widely, however, it also requires a fundamental alteration in the status relations among teachers and between teachers and principals. Strains, tensions and conflicts arise for which administrators may have only narrow interpretations ("personality

conflict") and equally narrow solutions (see Cohen, 1981). Teachers in one school take pride in the accomplishments wrought by two subject-area teams, but are also forthright in describing the tensions between the "haves" who work closely with the principal and the "have-nots" who are not seen (or treated) as innovators, "do-ers", "movers and shakers."

The major strategic problem posed by a team-building strategy is the creation of an expanded structure of leadership and the legitimation of mechanisms by which teachers can emerge as leaders with respect to teaching.

III. AN ILLUSTRATIVE CASE: "GETTING INTO CLASSROOMS".

An examination of selected critical practices reveals how and whether a school is organized to exert influence on instruction, and what part the principal and other administrators play. The observation and evaluation of teaching, provisions for curriculum development, involvement in shared planning or preparation of methods and materials, and the design and conduct of inservice education all can be examined for the conditions and consequences of leadership they convey. Of these, classroom observation (whether or not it is done for purposes of evaluation) brings administrators and teachers closest to confronting crucial problems of teaching and learning. Data on classroom observation and feedback practices in five schools serve to illustrate the range of leadership strategies, and to make a case for the probable connections between those strategies and school improvement outcomes.

Observing and being observed, giving and getting feedback about one's work in the classroom, may be among the most powerful tools of improvement. Whether by their own direct involvement or by organizing, leading and monitoring a system of observations done by others, administrators control a potent vehicle for making schools intellectually lively places, educative for teachers as well as for students (Shulman, 1983).

The direct observation of classroom practice is argued to be one of the critical practices by which influence on instruction and curriculum is made possible in a school. The main question here is this: Are observation and feedback described, organized, practiced, prepared for, and tied to consequences in a way that makes them a credible route to effective teaching?

In one of five schools, classroom observation is so frequent, so intellectually lively and intense, so thoroughly integrated into the daily work and so associated with accomplishments for all who participate, that it is difficult to see how the practices could fail to improve teaching. In still another school, the observation practices approach this standard. In three of the five schools, however, the observation of classroom life is so cursory, so infrequent, so shapeless and tentative that if it were found to affect instruction favorably we would be hard-pressed to construct a plausible explanation.

A. The Value of Observation and Feedback.

In classic apple pie fashion, almost everyone believes in the virtues of classroom observation. Getting into classrooms ranks high, at least in principle, among the priorities of all administrators. The actual place of observation and feedback in a set of institutional priorities is less uniform, less assured.

Here the issues revolve around: (1) Where observation and feedback fit in an order of priorities that may include other pressing demands on the time and energy of administrators; and (2) the demonstrated connection between observation/feedback practices and certain other values, obligations and rewards. Schools were distinguished not so much by the endorsement they gave to "getting in the classroom" as by the place they accorded it in their day-to-day work.

1. An order of priorities. In two of the five schools, almost nothing takes second place to observation and feedback; in the remaining three schools, observation and feedback take second place to many other tasks and obligations. In some schools, almost nothing could pull an administrator out of an observation; in other schools, almost anything can pull an administrator out of an observation.

Establishing priority for observation and feedback turns out to be difficult. Well-intentioned efforts may be compromised by competing obligations. In one high school, for example, an assistant principal delayed all his assigned classroom observations until the second semester in order to devote his time to establishing a system of identification cards for students. In another school where observation had been well-established, the school board's decision to abandon the student smoking area sent administrators scurrying after "illegal" smokers and wreaked havoc on the carefully constructed observation schedule.

Precisely because administrators juggle varied (and sometimes competing) obligations, they risk giving mixed messages about the importance and significance of classroom observation. In one instance, the public value of observation and feedback has been confirmed by asking teachers to evaluate administrators on how well they have managed those practices. In another instance, however, the stated importance of observation and feedback has been undermined by the fact that the public praise or reprimands that teachers receive follow not from their classroom accomplishments but from attendance reports or sign-in sheets.

2. Consequences. Over time, the importance that administrators attributed to classroom observation is either confirmed or questioned on the basis of known consequences--whether observation "makes a difference" in the quality of professional work or in the nature of personnel decisions. Teachers and administrators alike argue that observation and feedback ought to serve a range of professional ends, ranging from substantive improvements to career rewards. Viewed as instruments of professional development, observation and feedback ought to expand teachers' repertoire of practices, and enhance their ability to discover, articulate and apply pedagogical

principles. When tied to teacher evaluation, they ought to confirm a set of professional values as well as satisfying bureaucratic requirements.

At issue, according to teachers and administrators, is the nature of professional standards that are invoked and achieved, the nature and distribution of rewards or other sanctions, and the ability of administrators to influence either.

Psychological and social rewards. In a profession which relies largely upon intrinsic rewards, and in which the "endemic uncertainties" of the classroom make accomplishments hard to confirm (Lortie, 1975), a major consequence of classroom observation is, in the words of one administrator, "the boost or blow to pride." At Daniels Junior High, where practices of observation and feedback are well-established, teachers describe them as "informative, helpful, analytical and instructive." At Emerson High School, observations have been termed "thorough and professional." A new teacher at yet another high school says, "He wrote me a note that was really positive--I even saved it!"

The common pattern in the two "small city" schools was to find observation both demanding and rewarding. The common pattern in the remaining three schools was to report that "observation makes little difference," followed by a disclaimer: "it's nice to get a pat on the back." On the one hand, everyone welcomes the short appreciative note or the quick "pat on the back"; on the other, administrators were quick to point out that these may be the only meaningful consequences they control, while teachers prefer more substantive commentary on what they know to be complex performances. In the absence of more substantial organizational rewards, a "pat on the back" may seem inadequate compensation for major contributions. In the absence of more powerful professional or bureaucratic sanctions for poor performance, assaults on self-esteem may turn relations hostile without measurably improving the work.

Professional Rewards. At stake here are rewards including expanded opportunity, a more collegial relationship with administrators or peers, and recognition for important contributions. In the two schools where professional rewards closely follow skillful performance and involvement in professional development, teachers credit administrators with taking them seriously as professionals but struggle with the problem of differential distribution of rewards (a "star system"). Even in these schools, it is not clear that exemplary performance in the classroom earns a teacher special status with peers with respect to the ideas and practices of teaching.

Technical Improvements. The issue here is the ability of observation and feedback to contribute to an expanded repertoire of skills, and greater capacity for judging relation of theory to

practice. In two of the five schools, teachers credit observation practices with building greater overall conceptual sophistication, technical competence, and collective capacity to improve; in three, teachers only rarely attribute new ideas or refined skills to the observation process.

Bureaucratic consequences. This involves the case-by-case match between performance and consequences, and the associated allocation of opportunities and rewards. Administrators' ability to demonstrate a consistent and defensible tie between teachers' professional knowledge, skill, and commitment and their professional fortunes is a topic in all five schools. It is the least powerful of the consequences in shaping teachers' views.

3. Versions of observation and feedback. The form that observation and feedback take in individual schools reflects administrators' stance toward teaching and teachers; further, it conveys a view of the "proper" role of administrators in supporting the work of teachers. A central issue here is whether observation and feedback, as presently organized in a given school, have a plausible connection to teacher quality, the overall level of pedagogical skill, and the level of professional investment and commitment.

The versions of observation range from "dropping in and out" to systematic, structured observations organized as part of a sequence of direct assistance to teachers. Dropping in and out of classes is said, by those who do so, to establish administrators' presence and to offer a comprehensive view of instruction in the building. Administrators speak of maintaining general visibility, while generally trusting in an experienced faculty to do a competent job. In schools in which systematic observation prevails, administrators have no less faith in teachers' abilities or motives, but speak of focusing on those principles and practices with which even an experienced faculty may be unfamiliar and which may prove difficult and complex in practice.

B. The Organization of Observation and Feedback. At issue here is the degree to which observation and feedback are conducted on a scale large enough to make them meaningful, integral parts of the work of teaching.

1. Participation. Across all five schools, both administrators and teachers support the view that at least some teachers should be observed by administrators every semester; a considerable number believe that all teachers should be observed every semester. With few exceptions, they were far more reluctant to endorse observations by department chairs or teachers. In practice, this combination of beliefs may place a real strain on administrators to deliver. In two high schools, the principal does virtually all observations. In one of those schools, the

principal limits observations to the twenty or so faculty members whose turn it is to be evaluated under the district agreement; in the other, the principal completes the required evaluations and attempts to make several ten-minute visits to all other faculty members as well. In two other schools, administrators divide responsibilities in order to observe each of approximately fifty teachers on a four- to-ten day cycle at least once a year; in these same two, plans are underway for introducing peer observation.

2. Frequency. The impact of observation rests heavily on how often it happens and how long it continues. In some schools, observation is a routine part of teachers' interactions with administrators. At Emerson, administrators observe for twenty-two four-day "weeks" in a thirty-six week year. On most days, at least one of the three administrators is in at least one classroom for a structured observation. Altogether, they complete close to 300 structured observations with a faculty of approximately fifty. At Daniels Junior High, administrators each observe two or three classes a day, most days of the year. At that rate, they complete between five and six hundred observations each year with a faculty of about fifty. At Bolton High School, the principal says that he aims for ten observations a day. He was observed on several days to spend at least ten minutes in each of five classrooms.

The risk of too little observation is that it can't possibly add up to a mechanism for the improvement of teaching, though other purposes ("visibility," or conveying general interest in "what's going on") can be served. In some schools, teachers' beliefs about the worth of classroom observation are more likely to develop from rumor than from direct experience. When structured observation occurs once every five years (as it does for most teachers in two of the high schools, and for many in a third), it is unlikely that observers and observed will have the requisite mutual understanding or the shared language for describing and analyzing what is seen.

A different problem arises from the attempt to squeeze many (e.g., ten) observations into a single day. One might ask whether ten observations can in fact be "focused" in a manner that will be seen by teachers as useful. To increase the number of observations in the interest of "getting into classrooms" may seriously limit the prospects that feedback will demonstrate the kind of concreteness, focus, reciprocity and deference needed to make teachers willing and thoughtful participants.

3. Duration. Decisions about how long to stay in a classroom are cast in terms of purpose ("keeping in touch with what's happening" versus "knowing enough to be helpful") and in terms of appropriate professional relations. This dimension is one of two that clearly differentiate among schools, and has given rise to a

distinction between "what's right and what's rude" as a way of characterizing observation patterns.

In some schools, special circumstances are required to produce an observation longer than twenty minutes of a single classroom period. To observe for an entire period, or to come in two days in a row, calls for explanation to the teacher. In other schools, it takes special circumstances to limit an observation to as little as twenty minutes of a single class period. Failure to return for a second (or third or fourth) day would be considered rude, and would call for an explanation to the teacher.

To produce observation on the scale witnessed in two schools has been a triumph of planning, organization and persistence. The boundaries between "leadership" and "management" have become hard to delineate. Small decisions have been driven by larger visions; the larger visions, in turn, have been the cumulative effect of smaller tactics in the areas of scheduling, staff responsibilities, and budget.

C. Rigor and Relevance in Observation.

Teachers' faith in observation and feedback rests in part on the adequacy of the criteria and procedures. Are the criteria conceptually sound and practically appropriate? Are the procedures adequate to produce fair judgments and meaningful commentary? Acknowledging other relevant purposes (e.g.,personnel management), we concentrate here on the prospects that the in-class observation procedure will add to teachers' knowledge, skill, confidence and professional standing.

1. Criteria. The two districts do not differ appreciably in their criteria for classroom observation (Figure 1). The schools do differ in their treatment of those criteria--in the amount of effort they devote to figuring out what each criterion "looks like" in practice, in their efforts to get clarity and consistency among observers in a single school, and in the degree to which the terms used form a coherent vocabulary that administrators and teachers use to describe the work of the classroom. Thus, in the two "small city" schools, administrators and teachers take pride in having built a "shared language" over a period of time, while admitting that they still sometimes struggle to understand one another. In the "large city" district, administrators and teachers find the stated criteria generally sensible, but make few systematic efforts to use and refine the language of the criteria in post-observation discussions.

Figure 1

CLASSROOM OBSERVATION CRITERIA
IN TWO DISTRICTS

Small City District

1. The objective of each lesson is formulated and clearly written or stated.
2. The purpose and relevance of learning the material to be presented is made evident to the students.
3. The learning set, or motivation, for the lesson to stimulate interest or establish a positive mood is established and maintained.
4. Learning activities are congruent with objective/objectives.
5. Modeling of the lesson or skill in a planned presentation is made.
6. Informal checks for understanding were made during the instruction.
7. Guided practice, when appropriate, is provided and closely supervised.
8. Evaluation is made of results of instruction
9. Remediation is planned for students not meeting objectives.
10. Enrichment is planned for students showing mastery of objectives.

Big City District

1. Appropriate planning and preparation
2. Teaching to planned objectives
3. Interpersonal relations with: pupils, staff and parents
4. Use of effective classroom management techniques
5. Use of appropriate and varied instructional materials
6. Motivation of pupils
7. Use of evaluative techniques to test teaching results

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2. Procedure. Across the five schools there is considerable variation in the methods used and in the kinds of evidence and interactions those methods generate. Here, too, the distinctions between "what's right and what's rude" differentiate among schools. In two schools, it would be rude to enter a classroom without a pad or observation form; in one, it would come as a surprise to teachers if an administrator carried paper and pencil into the room. Those who take detailed notes argue that they are creating the "data" without which a thorough discussion is not possible, and that they are fulfilling a professional obligation to work as hard at observing as the teacher is working at teaching. Those who take no notes during a class argue that to do so would limit their ability to "see everything," and would make teachers uncomfortable. One principal relies on notes constructed later in his office, insisting "you might not believe that I can remember everything, but I can." The issue here may not be whether researchers find such a claim credible, but whether teachers do.

Two consistent and related problems emerge. First, the effort to make teachers "comfortable" may compromise the drive for competence. One teacher comments that "comfort and improvement aren't always compatible." Second, teachers in schools with frequent observation place heavy emphasis on the development of shared understandings and shared language. The notes taken in a class, they say, help to build precisely such understandings and such language. They help to create "thick skin," and a tolerance on both parts for classroom performances (and observation conferences) that are sometimes rough, unpolished, and clumsy.

The principal of one school began observations on the very first day of school, concentrating his efforts on two teachers he expected would have difficulty getting the year off to a smooth start; in both cases, the teachers credited his assistance on classroom management with helping them establish an orderly environment in the first two weeks of school. Hardly gluttons for punishment, teachers in such schools deliberately seek observation when they believe they have something to learn from an observer:

> "I wish there were more observations. This semester I'm trying out a new unit on heroes with a lot of team learning. I so wanted him here when I tried it out. He tried but he couldn't make it. But if he does give you time you know it's going to be quality time."

By contrast, teachers in other schools arrange to be observed only when they have a fair chance at a smooth performance; principals agree to delay observations until a teacher has a class "settled down."

D. Establishing Professional Relations.

By each interaction, teachers and administrators confirm or erode the set of professional norms and relations on which steady improvement rests. Each stage of observation and feedback constitutes an opportunity to establish, confirm, modify or jeopardize the necessary social relations. Some professional relations more than others support the close scrutiny of classroom practice, permitting work on teaching practices without damaging teachers. These relations are expressed by teachers as matters of "trust," "respect," the absence of "threat" and the presence of high standards. Our task has been to unravel such terms, to make them less mysterious, less bound to traits of character and more interpretable as situated acts that might be learned and practiced.

1. Deference. Unlike close friends and families, teachers and administrators cannot generally rely on long histories to insure that they intend no harm to one another; to establish trust in one another, they must find a substitute for the intimacy of close family ties.

Practices of deference preserve personal and professional integrity while exposing ideas and practices to close study and evaluation. We have observed ways of talking and acting which tend to reassure persons that they are not being attacked even as their practices are subjected to rigorous scrutiny. We term these ways "deferential" because they address the person's work role; they address expectations for behavior, actual behavior and consequences, and give due respect to qualifications, experience, skills and the complexity of the job. They leave the role incumbent intact; they leave his or her person, worth and motives out of the matter.

It appears that these deferential ways of speaking and acting have made it possible for teachers to join in more rigorous examination of teaching practice, and thus are tools of instructional leadership. They will be familiar to students of communication, interpersonal relations and group interaction: concentrating on ideas and practices rather than people, on description rather than judgment, on precision over generality are examples. But the learning of these tools as personal skills is only a start in instructional leadership. The crucial question is whether they are made powerful norms--shared expectations for behavior--in schools.

2. Reciprocity. The solidarity of a group seems to depend on some sense that its members--administrators, department heads, and teachers--are equally invested, equally at risk, equally rewarded and equally energetic. To the extent that observation and feedback have taken hold as powerful practices in these schools, it is largely by virtue of fostering mutuality and

reciprocity in interactions. By taking the time to learn how to observe, by working hard during classes to observe thoroughly, by inviting feedback from teachers on ways to improve their observations, administrators in two schools have shown themselves to be as invested in the examination of teaching as they ask teachers to be. In addition, reciprocity has been established by insuring that both teachers and administrators can exert influence over most or all aspects of the observation process, ranging from the selection of the observer, to the range of criteria and curiosities addressed in the observation, to the topics and procedures employed in giving feedback.

3. Trust as Obligation. In interviews and observations, we have encountered at least three forms of "trust", all of which appear relevant to instructional leadership. The first is trust in others' intentions, specifically in their intentions not to do harm. This version of trust is, of course, fallible. The extraordinary tentativeness with which observation and feedback were discussed in three of the five schools is testimony to the frailty and uncertainty of good intentions as a guarantor of success.

A second form of trust is based on predictable criteria and procedures. Teachers in two schools stressed their faith in a clear (though not exhaustive) set of criteria and a procedure that took the mystery and one-sided subjectivity out of observation. A teacher in another school proposed that thorough notes taken during an observation might provide a basis for sorting out disagreements, making him more confident in the observation process.

Finally, trust appears to rest on administrators' willingness to balance their authority to observe or evaluate with an obligation to do so knowledgeably, skillfully, and fairly. In a parallel fashion, staff developers or other specialists have built trust by fulfilling an obligation to inform (Little, 1981). Teachers at Daniels Junior High can recount with considerable clarity (and with no embarrassment) the critiques of their teaching made in recent observation conferences; in that school, the demands implicit in the critiques will be matched by support from administrators and other teachers. In a school where teachers have less faith in observation--but where at least some would prefer to see it practiced on a much larger and improved scale--the assistant principal for instruction confesses that he feels woefully inadequate to satisfy such an obligation:

> "If these [observations] were meaningful, I'd feel very insecure [and] would demand to be armed with some good techniques. [But] since they're not, I don't place a lot of importance on them."

The requirements of reciprocity and deference are emerging as critical factors in the value attached to observation and feedback. The necessary social relations are fragile commodities, strengthened or weakened in the day-by-day interaction among administrators and teachers. A teacher and principal have worked together closely for several years and with impressive accomplishments to show for their efforts, yet in a conference the principal apologizes to the teacher because he unintentionally hurt her feelings by making a criticism without offering an analysis of the cause or alternatives for a solution. Criticism without analysis leads to hurt feelings and places teachers in jeopardy; praise without analysis leads both to relief (a good reputation is built, or a good evaluation insured) and to contempt (the observer has nothing to offer). By imposing the obligation of teacher evaluation along with many other responsibilities, or by failing to assist administrators to learn the necessary skills and methods, a district can place many administrators in situations which are at least awkward and at worst destructive of administrator-teacher interactions about teaching.

Once in place, however, these professional relations are also remarkably resilient, supportive of the kind of "thick skin" required to permit detailed, close analysis of teaching practices and their consequences.

E. Emerging Problems.

In the schools where administrators have gotten into classrooms most actively and successfully, several problems have begun to emerge.

1. Scale of the Task. To do observation and feedback in a meaningful fashion may stretch a small administrative team very thin, even assuming they are in agreement about the worth of the practices and feel an obligation to use them. As a matter of sheer numbers, an administrative staff numbering two, three or four faces a major challenge in organizing observations for faculties ranging from fifty to over one hundred teachers. In Figure 2, we have illustrated the problem using a hypothetical staff configuration of eighty teachers and three administrators.

The more complex the curriculum and the more sophisticated the instructional practice, the greater are the technical demands on the observer and the harder it is to do a credible job of observation. In "getting into classrooms" for purposes of improvement, administrators encounter certain objective realities. Studies of school improvement and school effectiveness

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Figure 2

A SMALL ILLUSTRATION OF POSSIBILITIES FOR EXPANDING OBSERVATION AND FEEDBACK

Teachers claim that they do not begin to have faith in an observer's grasp of their teaching in less than four visits. What are the possibilities for producing observation on that scale?

Taking a faculty of 80 teachers....

How long will it take to observe everyone once if observations are done at the rate of:

Observers	One a week	Three a week	Five a week
Principal alone	Two years	27 weeks	16 weeks
Principal and one assistant principal	40 weeks	13 weeks	8 weeks
Principal and two assistant principals	27 weeks	9 weeks	5 weeks
Principal, AP and four department chairs	Variable rates for administrators and chairs, e.g., three a week for administrators and one a week for chairs would require 8 weeks		

suggest that the tasks of improvement are well beyond the capacity of administrators to lead alone, just as they are beyond the capacity of teachers to resolve working independently (Bird, 1984; Berman and McLaughlin, 1978). When school improvement is seen primarily as an increase in a school's collective capacity to pursue systematic improvements over long periods of time, demands on leadership are multiplied. These demands probably exceed the capacities of even skillful administrators, but could be more nearly met if the present school leadership were augmented by teacher leaders proficient not only in teaching but also in support of other teachers.

2. Expanding the Structure of Leadership. In the words of one recent observer of school leadership, a principal's main contribution may be "to make the school larger than one person" (Lipsitz, 1983). One aspect of "policy," then, appears to be a form of organization in which leadership is broadly distributed and by which collegial work among teachers is given direction, continuity and depth. In secondary schools, one pattern has been to invest team leaders or department chairs with special authority for organizing and leading team work, or specifically for doing classroom observations, teacher supervision and (in rare instances) teacher evaluation.

Nonetheless, the options for expanding the group of observers are governed in part by prevailing perceptions of teachers' and chairs' appropriate roles. Differential roles among teachers run counter to historical patterns; there appear to be few mechanisms in schools by which teachers can come to defer to one another on matters of teaching, or by which exemplary teachers can emerge as leaders with rights of initiative on curriculum and instruction. Asked about the possibilities for introducing peer observation, or systematic observation as a part of the department chair's role, the chairs are almost uniformly conservative in their replies; the closer a proposed practice comes to calling for critique or evaluation of another's teaching, the more it incurs the disapproval of teachers. Closer to the classroom is also closer to the bone, closer to the day-by-day performances on which personal esteem and professional standing rest.

Effectiveness is argued by some to be a function of each school's distinctive ethos (Rutter et al., 1979) or cumulation of beliefs, perspectives, structures and practices. Implicit in the idea of ethos or school culture is a structure not only of bureaucratic but of cultural leadership by teachers and administrators. The required practices and relations are, however, a substantial departure from established norms: a pattern of mutual independence on matters of teaching ("it's a matter of style"); a tradition of equal status relations among teachers with respect to curriculum and instruction (Cohen, 1981); and the absence of mechanisms for emerging leadership

(Lortie, 1975; Cohen, 1981). This aspect of instructional leadership has added relevance in light of recent state and local initiatives to introduce status differences among teachers (e.g., through career ladders or master teacher plans) as a means of expanding professional opportunities and rewards.

IV. CONCLUSIONS.

In the first stage of a two-year study, we went searching for instructional leadership in secondary schools. The good news is that we found it. Some schools stand out for the manner in which administrators and influential teachers have organized the work life of the school to devote time, thought, energy, and budget to the steady improvement of curriculum and instruction. These are schools in which a pattern of principles and practices is clear, and in which academic and other gains appear to have followed from administrators' and teachers' work with one another. The bad news is that such principles and practices are rare, even in some schools with an established reputation for instructional leadership.

One possibility is that the research methods and concepts were inadequate to the task, that more subtlety was required. At the same time, it seems reasonable to propose that practices so subtle as to escape detection by researchers who are actively seeking them are also likely to escape the notice of teachers who have other matters on their minds.

Specific practices of classroom observations and feedback have served in this paper as a vehicle for exploring patterns of instructional leadership. While such practices by no means exhaust the possibilities for administrators to exert influence on teachers' professional norms and classroom performance, they are among the practices that bring administrators and teachers most closely into touch with central challenges of classroom life. As a touchstone, they seem appropriate. They distinguish schools from one another and reveal a set of leadership principles that can serve as the basis of further inquiry and demonstration programs of training and support.

The case of observation also revealed that the resources of the administrative team will soon be spread thin by substantial efforts to engage teachers directly. The routines they establish are vulnerable even to apparently small matters like a change in policy regarding students' smoking. A larger structure of leadership seems to be called for. The surveys of the second year of the study explored the possibilities for such a structure. Observation and evaluation of teachers were examined first and in greatest detail. The survey and findings regarding observation and evaluation of teachers by administrators, by department heads, and by teachers are described in the next chapter.

Chapter 5
OBSERVING AND BEING OBSERVED AT WORK
A Survey of Expectations and Practices

In keeping with the importance which had come to be attached to observation and evaluation practices, the first of two surveys in the second year of the study was devoted almost exclusively to that topic.

I. ASSESSMENTS OF OBSERVATION PRACTICES AND OBSERVERS.

Respondents were asked to assess observation practices and observers in their school. In assessing observation practices, respondents reacted--on a five-point scale ranging from "strongly disagree" to "strongly "agree"--to seven statements concerning the concreteness, specificity, utility, actual use, and value of observation. In assessing observers, respondents reacted to statements regarding observers' efforts to achieve fair, valid, useful, and understandable observations and evaluations. The survey items and the results by item are shown for each school in section III, below. Here, administrators', department heads', and teachers' assessments of observation and evaluation in their schools are summarized for the eight schools in Table CSumm.

Teachers at Schools 4 and 5--the small-city high school and junior high school included in the first year case studies--rate observation practices and observers in their schools most favorably. A second group includes School 6, the second small-city junior high school, and schools 7 and 8, the large suburban schools. The third group includes the three urban high schools, Schools 1, 2, and 3.

Table CSumm: Assessments of Observation and Observers

ASSESSMENTS OF OBSERVATION PRACTICES
Scale range 7-35

School	Admins	D. Heads	Teachers
1	24.7	20.8	20.3
2	28.3	22.8	21.9
3	26.1	19.6	20.9
4	34.5	28.2	29.6
5	31.3	27.0	27.9
6	30.0	27.8	25.2
7	27.0	25.7	25.0
8	31.5	27.2	25.6

ASSESSMENTS OF THOSE WHO OBSERVE TEACHERS
Scale range 4-20

School	Admins	D. Heads	Teachers
1	16.3	12.3	12.8
2	15.6	13.3	12.9
3	17.5	12.4	13.4
4	19.5	17.0	17.0
5	19.0	16.0	17.4
6	19.0	15.5	15.3
7	15.0	16.3	14.8
8	17.0	16.4	15.5

II. SURVEY MEASURES AND REPORTING FORMATS

The first survey employed Jackson's (1966) Normative Return Potential model to look separately at nine dimensions of observation and evaluation of teachers and a tenth dimension of initiative in regard to a teaching practice. These dimensions were:

Frequency of Observation
Duration of Observation
Leadup to Observation
Recording During Observation
Deference in Feedback
Followup After Observation
(Observer's) Preparation for Observation
Link of Observation to Evaluation
Praise from Observation
Initiative Regarding a Teaching Practice

A. Dimensions of Behavior; Acts in Situations.

Each dimension was represented by a series of five or six options for an observer's or evaluator's behavior in a situation. Each series of options was presented three times: first with an administrator as the observer or evaluator, then with a department head as the observer or evaluator, then with a teacher as the observer or evaluator. Respondents indicated their approval or disapproval of each option and selected one of the options as best describing the actual practice in their schools. Here is a sample for the frequency of observation, by administrators:

"SITUATION: Administrators, department chairs, and teachers have other things to do than to observe and give feedback or to be observed and receive feedback. At the same time, this routine procedure may have its virtues and uses.

FIRST, how much would you approve if teachers IN YOUR SCHOOL were observed by ADMINISTRATORS:	Strongly Approve			Don't Care		Strongly Disappr.	
1. Once per year, or less.	+3	+2	+1	0	-1	-2	-3
2. Once per semester.	+3	+2	+1	0	-1	-2	-3
3. Twice per semester.	+3	+2	+1	0	-1	-2	-3
4. Once per month.	+3	+2	+1	0	-1	-2	-3
5. Twice per month, or more.	+3	+2	+1	0	-1	-2	-3

CIRCLE THE NUMBER OF THE STATEMENT WHICH BEST DESCRIBES WHAT ACTUALLY HAPPENS IN YOUR SCHOOL. IF NONE APPLY CIRCLE —→ 9."

The "Guide to Information in 'I' Tables" (see Section B) lists the ten dimensions of observation and evaluation which were included in the survey, with the options for behavior employed to represent each.

B. Reporting Expectations and Practices.

The Normative Return Potential measures incorporate two dimensions: the approval-disapproval dimension and the behavior dimension represented in each series of items. It was necessary to resort to unfamiliar table formats to report results. Two kinds of tables were prepared to present, by school, respondents' expectations for and reports about observation and evaluation of teachers. Tables with "I" after the school number use simple graphics to bring out patterns of approval and disapproval regarding the options for behavior presented in the survey. Tables with "IS" after the school number match the "I" table they follow, but provide approval/disapproval scores in the place of the graphics.

In reports to the schools participating in the study, scores were reported for a series of nominal groups which included all respondents, administrators, department heads, teachers, and each of several departments. A table numbering system was developed to identify the schools and groups. That system is reflected here. The first digit in the table number is the school's number. That is followed by "I" or "IS", designating the use of either the graphic or scores, and then "1", denoting the nominal group which includes all respondents in the school.

1. Reading the "I" Tables. On following pages appear an I table for School 1 and two copies of the Guide to Information in the "I" Tables. One copy can be pulled out for use here. Following paragraphs describe the table format and entries.

"WHO ANSWERED?" Here is named the group of respondents whose views are being reported. Table 1-I 1 reports the views of all respondents in School 1. (The size of the group is indicated by "% of All Respondents", the proportion of all respondents who are members of the group.

"ABOUT WHOM?" This line indicates the potential observers or evaluators, administrators, department heads, and teachers, who appeared in the survey's questions. Below each title are some summary statistics regarding the respondent group's views about each potential observer.

"Average Consensus." "Consensus" is an index of the degree to which the members of the group agree in their approval or disapproval of the options for behavior presented in the survey. The index can range from 0 (no agreement) to 1 (complete

agreement). "Average Consensus" is the respondent group's mean consensus score for one potential observer for all ten dimensions of observation. For all respondents in school 1, the consensus score is .29 for teachers as observers and .43 for administrators as observers, indicating that school 1's respondents are somewhat more agreed in their expectations for administrators.

"Average Intensity". As approval scores could range from 0 to +3 and disapproval scores could range from 0 to -3, the Intensity score can range from 0 to 3. It is the mean absolute value of approval/disapproval scores, for all behavioral options on one dimension, for all members of the respondent group. Average Intensity is a respondent group's mean intensity score for one potential observer for all ten dimensions. It suggests how strongly the group feels about the potential observer's options on the ten dimensions. In Table 1-I 1, the average intensity scores indicated that respondents tended to use responses of -2 and +2, where the extremes are -3 and +3, in expressing their reactions to administrators, department heads, and teachers as observers.

"Average Tendency." The Tendency index is computed by subtracting all disapproval (-) scores from all approval (+) scores for all behavior options on one dimension, for all members of the respondent group. Like the approval scores themselves, the tendency index can range from -3 to +3. It suggests the balance of approval and disapproval for the behavior options in a dimension. Average Tendency is a respondent group's mean Tendency score for one potential observer for all ten dimensions. Over all items, respondents in school 1 are slightly approving (.25) of options for administrators, slightly disapproving (-.17) of all options for teachers as observers.

"KEY": In the "I" tables, these lower case and upper case keys are used to indicate the pattern of a group's mean approval/disapproval scores for the behavior options in a dimension.

"Possible Practice". At the lower left of the table appear the titles of the ten dimensions of observation and evaluation which were dealt with in the survey, from "Frequency of Observation" to "**Initiative in Regard to a Teaching Practice." In the survey, each of these dimensions was represented by 5 or 6** options for the potential observer's behavior. Those options are represented in the header:

```
Less                    More
1     2     3     4     5     6**.

        aaaaaaaAAAAAAA
ddddddddDDDDDDD
        TTTTTTT
```

For each of the ten dimensions of observation and evaluation, either 5 or 6 options for behavior were offered, arrayed to represent "less" or "more" of that dimension, e.g. Frequency of Observation. The header denotes those options, using the "**" to indicate the two dimensions for which there were six behavior options. The Guide to Information in the "I" Tables, uses the same convention to show, for each of the ten dimensions, what the behavior options are. Two copies of the Guide are included so that one may be torn out and laid beside the table.

Patterns of Approval and Disapproval. In the space below the header in the I table, the lower case and upper case keys are used to indicate the pattern of the respondent group's approval or disapproval of the potential observer's options for behavior. In school 1, respondents approve of options 2 and 3 for administrators as observers (aaaaaaa). It most approves (AAAAAAA) of option 3 for administrators as observers. And it disapproves of options 1, 4, and 5 (they are blank). For Department Heads as observers, the respondent group approves of options 1 and 2; it most approves of option 2. It disapproves of options 3, 4, and 5 (they are blank for this row). For Teachers as observers, this respondent group approves of only option 2.

Note in the Guide to Information in the "I" Tables that these rows are for "Frequency of Observation." School 1's respondents most approve administrators' observing at the rate of "Twice per semester," option 3. It most approves department heads' observing "Once per semester" (option 2); that is the only rate at which the group approves observation by teachers.

"Reported Practice". In the lower half of the I table, the center column of numbers indicates the behavior option which members of the respondent group selected to describe what usually happens in the school. For Frequency of Observation by administrators, the number in the column is 2, indicating that the respondent group has reported that option 2 best describes what actually happens in their school. The "reported practice" score is a mean. As the behavior options were arrayed on a dimension, their numbers were treated as scores and a mean was obtained for each respondent group. In "I" tables, that mean has been rounded to an integer to match the reduced precision of the graphic display of approval scores.

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TABLE 5-1 1 A HEXIONAL GROUP'S VIEWS OF OBSERVATIONS OF TEACHERS

AND ANSWERED:
% of All Respondents

ALL RESPONDENTS
100%

ABOUT WHEN:	ADMINISTRATORS	DEPARTMENT HEAD	TEACHERS
Average Consensus	.43	.37	.29
Average Intensity	1.86	1.89	1.88
Average Tendency	.85	.83	-.17
KEY: Tolerable Behavior	aaaaaaaa	dddddddd	tttttttt
Most approved Behavior	A	D	T

aaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaa

Possible Practice ——————————)
Reported Practice ——————————v

Less 1 2 3 4 5 More 6++

Frequency of Observation	2	aaaaaaaDDDDDDD
	1	ddddddDDDDDDD
	1	TTTTTTT
Duration of Observation	2	aaaaaaaDDDDDDD
	1	ddddddDDDDDDD
	1	TTTTTTT
Lead-up to Observation	2	aaaaaaaDDDDDDDaaaaaaa
	3	ddddddDDDDDDDddddddd
	3	TTTTTTTtttttttt
Recording during Observation	2	aaaaaaaDDDDDDDaaaaaaa
	2	ddddddDDDDDDDddddddd
	1	ttttttTTTTTTTtttttttt
ce/Reference in Feedback	3	DDDDDDDaaaaaaaaaaaaaa
	5	ddddddDDDDDDDddddddd
	4	ttttttTTTTTTTtttttttt
Follow-up after Observation	3	aaaaaaaaaaaaaDDDDDDDaaaaaaa
	3	DDDDDDDddddddddddddddd
	2	ttttttttttttttTTTTTTTtttttttt
Preparation for Observation	2	aaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaDDDDDDD
	3	ddddddddddddddddddddDDDDDDD
	3	ttttttttttttttttttttttTTTTTTT
Link of Observation to Evaluation	3	aaaaaaaDDDDDDDaaaaaaaaaaaaaa
	3	ddddddDDDDDDDddddddddddddddd
	*	
Praise from Observation	3	aaaaaaaaaaaaaDDDDDDDaaaaaaa
	2	DDDDDDDddddddddddddddddddd
	1	TTTTTTTtttttttttttttttttttttt
ce/Initiative in regard to a teaching practice	2	aaaaaaaDDDDDDDaaaaaaa
	2	ddddddDDDDDDDddddddd
	2	ttttttTTTTTTTtttttttt

GUIDE TO INFORMATION IN "I" TABLES

WHO ANSWERED? The respondent group (1 of 13) whose views are reported in the table.
% of All Respondents, in the school, who also are in this group.

ABOUT WHOM? Potential observers: Administrators, Department heads, or Teachers.
Ave. Consensus (0-1), in respondents' approval/disapproval scores for the observer.
Ave. Intensity (0-3), of respondents' approval/disapproval scores.
Ave. Tendency (-3 to +3), of respondents, toward approval or toward disapproval.

POSSIBLE PRACTICE. 5 or 6** ordered options for a potential observer's behavior:

1 2 3 4 5 FREQUENCY OF OBSERVATION

Once per year, or less.
Once per semester.
Twice per semester.
Once per month.
Twice per month, or more.

1 2 3 4 5 DURATION OF OBSERVATION

Less than twenty minutes of a single class period.
Ten to twenty minutes of a single class period.
More than twenty minutes of a single class period.
More than twenty minutes of a period, two days in a row.
More than twenty minutes of a period, three or more days in a row.

1 2 3 4 5 LEADUP TO OBSERVATION

Appears in classrooms without notice and without saying what will be looked for.
Tells the teacher when s/he will observe and what will be looked for.
Negotiates with the teacher a time to visit and things to look for.
Follows the teacher's advice on when to visit and what to look for.
Observes only when asked, and looks only for things specified, by the teacher.

1 2 3 4 5 RECORDING IN OBSERVATION

Watches the class but makes no record.
Makes some summary notes on the class.
Makes descriptive notes on what happens in the class.
Uses an observation form designed to help observers.
Uses the form and makes an audio tape.

1 2 3 4 5 6** DEFERENCE IN FEEDBACK

Says that the teacher is disorganized (because teacher's directions were flawed).
Describes what happened in the class; states that the directions were faulty.
Describes what happened; suggests fewer, clearer directions.
Describes what happened and asks what the teacher thought of it.
Asks what the teacher thought of the lesson.
Says nothing about the matter.

1 2 3 4 5 FOLLOW-UP AFTER OBSERVATION

Do nothing more (after suggesting fewer, clearer directions would have helped).
Offer to give the teacher written material on effective direction giving.
Ask at some time what the teacher did about the matter.
Observe the teacher's class once more, looking for direction giving.
Observe from time to time until there is improvement.

1 2 3 4 5 PREPARATION FOR OBSERVATION

Makes no particular preparation for observation.
Reads some manuals or books on observation.
Attends training on observation methods.
Brings in a trainer to coach him/her in observation methods.
Asks teachers to comment on observer's procedures and skills.

1 2 3 4 5 OBSERVATION AND EVALUATION*

Writes nothing in the evaluation (about a teacher's lack of progress in important aspects of teaching.).
Writes that the observer and teacher are working on teacher's practice.
Writes what has happened and that progress has not been made.
Writes that teacher should be given a lower overall rating this year.
Places teacher on probation—frequent observation and supervision.

*Asked only for administrators and department heads as observers.

1 2 3 4 5 PRAISE FROM OBSERVATION

Does nothing (having observed a teacher's routinely doing excellent work).
Praises the teacher in person.
Mentions teacher's performance to department head and to administrators.
ADMINISTRATOR, DEPT. HEAD writes specific praise in the teacher's evaluation; TEACHER writes a letter of praise for file.
Praises the teacher in a faculty meeting.

1 2 3 4 5 6** INITIATIVE REGARDING A PRACTICE

Does nothing (about a teaching practice which s/he believes should be used).
Provides information about the practice; suggests that teachers use it.
Uses the practice, in demonstrations or in teaching.
ADMINISTRATOR, DEPT. HEAD devotes required inservice to the practice; TEACHER spends time with teachers who use the practice.
ADMINISTRATOR, DEPT. HEAD includes practice as evaluation criterion; TEACHER praises or criticizes teachers.
ADMINISTRATOR, DEPT. HEAD tries to promote teachers using the practice, dismiss those who don't. (No option for TEACHER as observer.)

REPORTED PRACTICE. Respondents' report of the option which best describes what actually happens in the school. (Mean option # of the ordered behavior options.)

GUIDE TO INFORMATION IN "I" TABLES

WHO ANSWERED? The respondent group (1 of 13) whose views are reported in the table.
% of All Respondents, in the school, who also are in this group.

ABOUT WHOM? Potential observers: Administrators, Department heads, or Teachers.
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Negotiates with the teacher a time to visit and things to look for.
Follows the teacher's advice on when to visit and what to look for.
Observes only when asked, and looks only for things specified, by the teacher.

1 2 3 4 5 RECORDING IN OBSERVATION

Watches the class but makes no record.
Makes some summary notes on the class.
Makes descriptive notes on what happens in the class.
Uses an observation form designed to help observers.
Uses the form and makes an audio tape.

1 2 3 4 5 6** DEFERENCE IN FEEDBACK

Says that the teacher is disorganized (because teacher's directions were flawed).
Describes what happened in the class; states that the directions were faulty.
Describes what happened; suggests fewer, clearer directions.
Describes what happened and asks what the teacher thought of it.
Asks what the teacher thought of the lesson.
Says nothing about the matter.

1 2 3 4 5 FOLLOW-UP AFTER OBSERVATION

Do nothing more (after suggesting fewer, clearer directions would have helped).
Offer to give the teacher written material on effective direction giving.
Ask at some time what the teacher did about the matter.
Observe the teacher's class once more, looking for direction giving.
Observe from time to time until there is improvement.

1 2 3 4 5 PREPARATION FOR OBSERVATION

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Reads some manuals or books on observation.
Attends training on observation methods.
Brings in a trainer to coach him/her in observation methods.
Asks teachers to comment on observer's procedures and skills.

1 2 3 4 5 OBSERVATION AND EVALUATION*

Writes nothing in the evaluation (about a teacher's lack of progress in important aspects of teaching.).
Writes that the observer and teacher are working on teacher's practice.
Writes what has happened and that progress has not been made.
Writes that teacher should be given a lower overall rating this year.
Places teacher on probation—frequent observation and supervision.

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1 2 3 4 5 6** INITIATIVE REGARDING A PRACTICE

Does nothing (about a teaching practice which s/he believes should be used).
Provides information about the practice; suggests that teachers use it.
Uses the practice, in demonstrations or in teaching.
ADMINISTRATOR, DEPT. HEAD devotes required inservice to the practice; TEACHER spends time with teachers who use the practice.
ADMINISTRATOR, DEPT. HEAD includes practice as evaluation criterion; TEACHER praises or criticizes teachers.
ADMINISTRATOR, DEPT. HEAD tries to promote teachers using the practice, dismiss those who don't. (No option for TEACHER as observer.)

REPORTED PRACTICE. Respondents' report of the option which best describes what actually happens in the school. (Mean option # of the ordered behavior options.)

2. Reading the "IS" Tables. While the "I" tables allow a quick assessment of patterns of approval and disapproval, they also may raise questions: Option 2 is most approved, but how much approved? Is there another option in the series which is only slightly less approved? Option 5 is disapproved because no key appears there, but how strongly disapproved? Are the members of this group as much agreed (consensus) regarding Duration of Observation as they are agreed regarding Followup after Observation?

The "IS" (scores) table which follows each "I" table is laid out in virtually identical format, but it provides more detail and more information. An IS table for all respondents in School 4 appears on the following page to provide examples for the explanations below.

"KEY". Only an upper case key is used; it appears in the center column adjacent the "Reported Practice" score to mark the potential observer for which the respondent group is giving its expectations.

"Reported Practice". In the "IS" tables, the mean reported practice is carried to one decimal place to match the greater precision in the mean approval scores.

"Possible Practice". In place of the "I" table's upper and lower case keys appear the respondent group's mean approval scores for the potential observer. Cells which were blank in the "I" tables now show the mean disapproval scores. Mean approval/disapproval scores can, like the original responses, range from -3 to +3. In Table 1-I 4, it appears that the most approved option for administrators as observers (option 3) is weakly approved (the mean approval score is .6).

"TEN INT CON" (far right).
These are the respondent group's TENdency, INTensity, and CONsensus scores for each dimension, for each potential observer. These scores were explained above, with their averages. Examining these scores may show that a respondent group varies in its degree of agreement, intensity of feeling, and tendency toward each dimension of observation and evaluation.

C. Interpreting the Tables.

These tables are intended to support the members of a school in making both general and detailed assessments of present and potential practices in the area of observation and evaluation of teachers and in deriving programs for the improvement of observation and evaluation in the school. Practical use of the tables raises a variety of considerations.

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TABLE 4-IS 1 A NORMAL GROUP'S VIEWS OF OBSERVATIONS OF TEACHERS

WHO ANSWERED:
% of All Respondents

ALL RESPONDENTS
100%

ABOUT WHOM:	ADMINISTRATORS	DEPARTMENT HEAD	TEACHERS
Average Consensus (0,1)	.60	.64	.67
Average Intensity (0,3)	1.99	1.85	1.74
Average Tendency (-3,+3)	.39	.09	.04
KEY:	A	B	T

Possible Practice → / Reported Practice ↓		Less 1	2	3	4	More 5	6**	TOT	INT	CON
Frequency of Observation	A	2.8	-1.7	.2	.6	-.3	-1.0		-.5	1.9	.3
	B	1.4	-.7	.5	-.1	-1.0	-1.4		-.6	1.7	.3
	T	2.2	-.1	.8	.6	-.5	-.9		.0	1.5	.3
Duration of Observation	A	4.7	-2.6	-1.5	.3	1.4	2.0		-.1	2.0	.6
	B	2.8	-2.3	-.7	.3	.9	.4		-.3	1.8	.4
	T	3.4	-1.8	-.8	.8	1.3	.9		.1	1.8	.5
Lead-up to Observation	A	2.5	-1.3	1.8	2.3	.8	-1.5		.4	1.9	.6
	B	2.7	-1.6	.5	1.4	.6	-.6		.1	1.9	.4
	T	3.3	-2.0	.2	1.6	1.1	-.2		.2	1.8	.4
Recording during Observation	A	4.8	-1.7	.8	1.2	1.9	1.7		.6	1.8	.6
	B	2.3	-1.1	.1	.9	1.0	.2		.2	1.5	.4
	T	3.3	-.4	.5	1.2	1.0	.2		.5	1.3	.4
**Reference in Feedback	A	3.2	-1.3	.3	1.8	1.5	.8	-2.6	.1	2.0	.6
	B	4.3	-1.8	-.8	1.1	1.0	.6	-1.9	-.3	1.8	.5
	T	3.8	-2.1	-1.2	1.0	1.2	1.0	-1.5	-.2	1.8	.5
Follow-up after Observation	A	4.4	-2.1	1.4	.8	1.6	1.9		.7	1.9	.7
	B	2.3	-1.9	1.2	.7	1.0	.8		.4	1.8	.4
	T	3.0	-1.2	1.2	.4	.6	.8		.2	1.5	.4
Preparation for Observation	A	3.3	-2.3	1.0	1.9	1.5	2.4		.9	2.0	.7
	B	2.0	-2.0	.8	1.6	1.2	1.9		.7	1.8	.6
	T	2.5	-1.6	1.0	1.5	1.3	2.0		.8	1.8	.6
Link of Observation to Evaluation	A	3.4	-2.1	1.3	.7	.4	1.1		.3	1.8	.5
	B	2.0	-1.6	.9	.4	-.2	.1		-.1	1.9	.3
Praise from Observation	A	3.2	-2.5	2.3	2.0	2.5	.2		.9	2.3	.7
	B	2.7	-2.1	1.9	1.9	1.7	-.1		.7	2.1	.6
	T	2.3	-1.7	2.0	1.8	1.4	-.1		.7	1.9	.6
**Initiative in regard to a teaching practice	A	4.1	-2.5	1.7	2.1	2.2	1.0	-1.1	.6	2.2	.7
	B	2.4	-2.2	1.6	2.1	1.4	.8	-1.9	.2	2.1	.6
	T	2.5	-1.9	1.7	2.0	.4	-1.7		.1	2.0	.6

1. Comparisons of Respondent Groups and of Potential Observers. The I and IS tables are set up to compare one respondent group's views toward administrators as observers with that same group's views toward department heads as observers and toward teachers as observers. The comparison is of the actual and potential participation of administrators, department heads, and teachers in the observation and evaluation of teachers. The comparative procedure is to select the I/IS pair for the respondent group of interest, e.g., *-I 4 and *-IS 4 for all teachers as recipients of observation, and then to compare equivalent information for each of the potential observers.

Approved and reported practices of observation and evaluation of teachers might vary by position held or by department membership. Initiatives in the area of observation and evaluation thus also might vary by group. Respondent groups can be compared by placing their tables side by side and then comparing equivalent information for potential observers. In the tables at the end of the chapter, teachers', department heads', and administrators' views can be compared.

2. How Much is Consensus? While it can be said that the CONsensus and Average Consensus scores could range from 0 (no agreement) to 1 (complete agreement), it is not easy to assign a concrete meaning to any score in between; this is a comparative index. One can gain a sense of consensus by comparing the CONsensus scores for a given respondent group for individual dimensions. For individual dimensions, it is not unusual to see CONsensus scores of .8, .9, or 1.0 for smaller groups. (Because groups as small as three persons are reported in the full series of tables, the CONsensus scores have been rounded to one decimal place. Thus, a ".6" for one dimension and a ".5" for another dimension might have been rounded from .56 and .54, respectively.)

3. TENdency and INTensity: Clues to the Distribution of Approval. In the "IS" tables, the mean approval scores for the behavior options, the TENdency scores, and the INTensity scores may appear to be inconsistent. This is because they are computed separately from individuals' responses. These inconsistencies, together with the CONsensus score, can be clues to what is going on among the members of the group. Here are some possibilities:

Disagreement Among Respondents: The mean approval scores for all the behavior options in one dimension are small (-1 to +1), the TENdency score is small (-.5 to +.5), and the CONsensus score is small (less than .4), but the INTensity score is more than 2.0. This pattern suggests that many members of the group feel strongly about the options, but do not agree. Their contradictory views "wash out" in the mean approval scores and in the TENdency score, but the strength of their feeling shows in the INTensity

score. Because they feel strongly but do not agree, they may be a handful for anyone who would work with them on the matters in question.

Discrimination Among Behavior Options: The mean approval scores vary considerably, from scores near zero to much larger scores both positive and negative. The TENdency score is small. The INTensity score is around 2.0. The CONsensus score is .7. This pattern suggests that the members of the group are in fair agreement, and that they feel strongly about some of the options. It appears that they are discriminating among the behavior options. Some they approve strongly, some they disapprove strongly, and some they are indifferent to. So, they have no clear tendency either way. Because they are agreed, feel strongly, and are making distinctions among the options, one who works with this group may want to know their preferences.

Vacuous Consensus: The mean approval scores, the TENdency score, and the INTensity score all are small, but the CONsensus score is relatively high. Apparently, the members of this group agree that they don't care one way or another about any of the options. This group might accord considerable latitude to someone who wanted to use one of the behavior options. On the other hand, the group might have to be given a good reason; at present, they might not care enough to cooperate.

4. Range of Tolerable Behavior. One who is preparing some plan or undertaking some initiative may want to look, in the "I" tables, at the ranges of tolerable behavior: all the behavior options in a dimension which a group either approves or doesn't care about (all options for which the corresponding segment of the row is not blank). The plan or initiative might employ any of the options within that range without encountering great resistance. The range of tolerable behavior suggests the range of options which might be employed practically, with more or less explanation to the members of the respondent group.

5. Most Approved Behavior. On the other side of the coin, it is possible either to frustrate a respondent group or to lose ground in its eyes by failing to employ behavior options which the group's members most strongly approve. In conjunction, the most approved behavior keys in the "I" tables, the parallel approval scores in the "IS" tables, and the Reported Practice scores provide a quick way to estimate whether groups in the school have strongly held expectations which, from their point of view, are not being met. In such cases, one might undertake discussions to clarify expectations, or might treat those expectations as an opportunity to move with a group which wants more interaction or more rigorous interaction than it reports it is receiving.

III. EXPECTATIONS, PRACTICES, AND ASSESSMENTS IN EIGHT SCHOOLS.

This section presents, comments on, and speculates about the practical implications of the findings from the eight schools surveyed. The focus is on teachers' views and reports. The survey findings are presented and discussed by groups of schools. All tables appear at the end of the chapter.

Teachers in the three Big City high schools gave the lowest ratings to observation and evaluation in their schools, and their expectations for practice and reports of practice are similar (Section A). The high school and two junior high schools from the small city are discussed next. Teachers in the high school and in one of the junior high schools gave the highest marks to observation and observers in their schools. The principals of these three schools all are members of a secondary administrators' study group. With the leadership of one of the junior high school principals, they have taken similar initiatives in instructional leadership. Particularly in the one junior high school (School 4), vigorous observation and evaluation by administrators emerges as a powerful, accepted, and admired practice (Section B). Finally, findings from the two large suburban high schools are presented together. There, department heads were described as having substantial responsibilities for observing and evaluating teachers (Section C).

A. Schools 1, 2, and 3: The Big City Schools.

The return rates for the survey in Schools 1, 2, and 3 were 62%, 50%, and 100%, respectively. The results agree with the case study assessments; observation and evaluation are not prominent or highly regarded professional practices in these schools. At first glance, one may be tempted by a stereotype of older faculties in a desegregated district with a strong teachers' association. However, that image of a stand-off between teachers and administrators is called into question by another feature of the survey findings. In all three schools, and with regard to several important dimensions of observation, teachers gave their highest approval scores to observation options which are more rigorous than they reported were actually being used by their administrators. There is room in these findings for the interpretation that these teachers give low marks to observation and observers not because it is too stringent or threatening, but because it is not sufficiently vigorous or helpful.

1. Assessments of Observation and Observers (Tables 1-C, 2-C, 3-C). On average, the teachers who responded to the survey do not give high marks to observation practices in their school. They disagree, or are not sure, that "feedback on teaching is

concrete, specific." They are "not sure" whether "feedback on teaching can be used to improve teaching." They are "not sure" that, "When teachers use the feedback they receive, their teaching improves and students do better." They lean toward disagreeing that "observation of teachers is a valuable professional tool,"; however, they also tend to disagree that "observation of teaching is an empty, useless ritual."

Teachers in Schools 1 and 3 give better marks to those who observe them. They agree or strongly agree that "Those who observe teachers in this school strive to help teachers improve their teaching," and that "those who observe teachers in this school use fair, understandable standards for evaluating teaching." But as a group, they are "not sure" whether "Those who observe teachers in this school strive to help teachers improve their teaching." In School 2, teachers' assessments are more uniformly noncommittal or unfavorable.

2. Expectations and Practices (Tables 1-, 2-, and 3-I 4, 1-IS 4).

Consensus and Intensity: When compared with the other schools in the study, the Average Consensus scores for teachers' expectations regarding observation by administrators suggests that there are considerable differences of opinion among teachers in all three of the Big City schools. For each generalization below, it should be kept in mind that there probably is a minority with different views. By and large, teachers in these schools expressed their views using "-2" and "+2" in a scale which ranged from -3 to +3. It appears that they are not indifferent to the matters raised in the survey. That impression is buttressed somewhat by the fact that many teachers elected to write sometimes vociferous opinions on the optional comments page of this 45-minute survey.

For teachers' views of observation by administrators, the "Most Approved Practices" (those which receive the highest approval ratings from teachers) and the "Reported Practice" scores (what the respondents say is actually happening in the school) are summarized below. For many of the ten dimensions of observation measured, teachers approve most of observation options which are more extensive or more rigorous than the practice which they report is actually occurring. At the same time, there is no dimension on which the reported practice lies outside teachers' "range of tolerable behavior," the observation options which they approve or don't care about. In each of the dimension-by-dimension comparisons below, the opinions and reports are those of the teachers who responded to the survey. The behavior referred to is the behavior of administrators. Where the expected or reported practices for schools are different, they generally are listed in school number order.

Frequency Of Observation

Most Approved Practices: Twice per semester (Schools 1 and 2); once per semester (School 3).

Reported Practices: Once per semester (School 1); twice per semester (School 2); once per year or less (School 3).

Duration of Observation

Most Approved Practice: More than twenty minutes of a class period.

Reported Practice: Ten to twenty minutes of a class period.

Leadup to Observation

Most Approved Practice: Negotiates with the teacher a good time to visit and appropriate things to look for (Schools 1 and 2); tells the teacher when s/he will observe and what will be looked for (School 3).

Reported Practice: Tells the teacher when s/he will observe and what will be looked for (School 1); arrives in classrooms without notice and without saying what will be looked for (Schools 2 and 3).

Recording During Observation

Most Approved Practices: Makes descriptive notes on the class (Schools 1 and 3); makes some summary notes on the class (School 2). In Schools 2 and 3, this is one of the dimensions of observation on which teachers agree most, where their consensus scores were highest.

Reported Practice: Makes some summary notes on the class.

Deference in Feedback

Most Approved Practices: In a situation where the observer has seen the teacher give students a confusing set of instuctions, the administrator-observer describes what happened and makes suggestions (Schools 1 and 3); describes what happened and asks what the teacher thought of it. (Schools 2 and 3). No faculty approved of the option in which the observer says nothing about the matter.

Reported Practice: Describes what happened and asks what the teacher thought of it.

Followup after Observation

Most Approved Practice: Observe the teacher's class once more, or observe the teacher's class from time to time until there is improvement. In Schools 2 and 3, this is another of the dimensions on which teachers' consensus scores were highest.

Reported Practice: Ask at some time what the teacher did about the matter. NOTE: Asking what the teacher did, observing once more, and observing from time to time until there is improvement are adjacent options in this dimension of observation. But they place substantially different demands on both the teacher and the observer.

Preparation for Observation

Most Approved Practices: Asks teachers to provide feedback on his/her observation and feedback procedures and skills; attends training on observation methods (School 2). This is another dimension where teachers' consensus scores are highest.

Reported Practice: Reads some manuals or books on observation.

Link of Observation to Evaluation

Most Approved Practices: In a situation where a teacher has made no progress in an important aspect of teaching over the course of a year, the administrator places the teacher "on evaluation," a type of probation involving frequent observation and supervision (Schools 1 and 3); writes in the evaluation that the teacher and administrator are working together on some aspects of the teacher's practice (Schools 2 and 3). This is one of three dimensions on which School 1's teachers agree most.

Reported Practices: Writes (in the evaluation) what has happened and that progress has not been made (School 1); writes that the administrator and teacher are working on some aspect of the teacher's practice (Schools 2 and 3). NOTE: Writing that the administrator and teacher are working on the teacher's practice and placing the teacher on "evaluation" are the second and fifth options in this dimension. They are separated by the options of writing that progress has not been made and writing that the teacher should be given a lower overall rating for the year. There is reason here to argue that these teachers prefer observation with active consequences--be they supportive or

sanctioning--to observation with the more passive written judgements.

Praise from Observation

Most Approved Practice: Writes specific praise in the teacher's evaluation. NOTE: Teachers in all three schools feel more strongly and are more agreed on this dimension than any other. See the CONsensus and INTensity scores in the IS tables. In light of these teachers' preferences regarding the link between observation and evaluation, their scores here cannot be interpreted as a self-serving desire to look well no matter how they perform. In this and the preceding dimension, it is easier to see a preference for a well-founded balance of accountability, and support, and recognition. The possibilities for administrators' behavior as observers typically have been called "options" here. The implied question is whether teachers would accept administrators' use of an option. In light of teachers' agreement and strength of feeling in this matter, however, one might interpret their expectations as a demand. The question then would be whether administrators satisfy that demand.

Reported Practice: Mentions the teacher's performance to his/her department head or to administrators (Schools 1 and 3); praises the teacher in person (School 2). If teachers' expectations regarding praise from observation do constitute a kind of demand, administrators in these schools might be failing to satisfy it. Teachers' lukewarm assessments of observation in these schools might be based on administrators' omissions rather than on their actions.

Initiative in Regard to a Teaching Practice

Most Approved Practices: Uses the teaching practice, in demonstrations or in the usual course of teaching; provides teachers information about the practice and suggests that they use it. Teachers also approve administrators' devoting required in-service training to the practice. This is another of the dimensions on which teachers' CONsensus and INTensity scores tend to be highest.

Reported Practice: Provides teachers information about the practice and suggests that teachers use it.

3. An Interpretation. These findings do not buttress a stereotype of older, cynical, and well-organized teachers who are moving to thwart teacher evaluation at every turn. Rather, judging by these comparisons, many teachers in Schools 1, 2 and 3 would welcome a practice of observation which, while it is more

extensive and rigorous for teachers, and is more closely tied to formal evaluations, also is more demanding of administrators.

More frequent observation, longer observations, descriptive note-taking during observation, more suggestions based on observation, and more extensive followup observations all are supported by many of these teachers. Lower consensus scores suggest that there are substantial minority views on these matters.

With greater agreement, these teachers support stronger ties between observation and evaluation (including both more definite action when there are problems and more written recording of good performance) and greater use of administrators' initiative to promote teaching practices.

Many of these teachers, it appears, would like to give administrators feedback on their observation skills and procedures. In the context of the support for more extensive and more rigorous observation, and in light of teachers' generally good marks for the intentions of those who observe them (the C tables) it seems likely that much of that feedback would be intended to improve the practice rather than to avoid it.

An administrator-observer is likely to receive the negative reactions to observation rather quickly. At the same time, it can be difficult to establish a fruitful relationship between an observer and the teacher observed, so that positive reactions to observation come more slowly. Is it possible, therefore, that teachers less approving of observation exert influence disproportionate to their numbers? Are observation practices being shaped more by the few distressing cases than by the usual case? If so, an option for administrators who wish to expand observation may be to locate and work with teachers who welcome the relationship and then to persist, experimenting with observation practices, until the benefits and satisfaction emerge. An option for teachers who seek the relationship is to be more forthcoming, both in recognizing overtly the efforts of observers and in offering advice which would improve the observation practice.

B. Schools 4, 5, and 6: The Small City Schools.

The survey return rates in these schools were 84% in the high school (School 5) and, effectively, 100% in the two junior high schools. That is, all full-time teachers (for whom the survey was primarily intended) and most traveling or part-time teachers responded. With School 3, Schools 4-6 were surveyed earliest in the year. In all four schools, briefings for administrators, department heads (in the high schools), and faculty went well. Principals were visibly supportive of the faculty's participation in the survey. School secretaries took on the job of receiving the completed surveys from teachers in sealed envelopes with names written on the outside, reminding the faculty to complete the surveys, and handing the sealed envelopes to the researchers.

School 4 might be called the flagship of this group. Its principal began earliest (six or more years before the study took place) to take a more active role in instruction. The three schools' principals are all members of a secondary administrators' study group. The principals of Schools 4 and 5 are fairly described as leaders of that group, which the district's director of secondary instruction also attended. The two principals also are friends and close allies. Their efforts by example have produced and shaped policies for observation and evaluation in their district.

1. Teachers' Assessments of Observation and Observers (Tables 4-, 5-, and 6-C). Teachers in School 4 give the observation practices used there the highest marks given by any of the eight faculties in the study. They agree or strongly agree that "feedback on teaching is concrete, specific," that "feedback on teaching can be used to improve teaching," that "when teachers use the feedback they receive, their teaching improves and students do better," and that "observation of teaching is a valuable professional tool."

School 4's teachers give similar high marks to those who observe and evaluate them. They agree or strongly agree that "those who observe teachers in this school strive to help teachers improve their teaching. . .strive to provide fair and valid evaluations of teachers. . .make their observation criteria clear. . .(and) use fair, understandable standards for evaluating teaching."

Observation and evaluation practices are admired and have become valued in this school.

Teachers in School 5 give good marks to the observation practices used there. They agree that "feedback on teaching is concrete, specific," that "feedback on teaching can be used to improve teaching," and that "observation of teaching is a

valuable professional tool." They agreed somewhat less that "When teachers use the feedback they receive, their teaching improves and students do better."

School 5's teachers give higher marks to those who observe and evaluate them. They agree or strongly agree that "those who observe teachers in this school strive to help teachers improve their teaching. . .strive to provide fair and valid evaluations of teachers. . .make their observation criteria clear. . .(and) use fair, understandable standards for evaluating teaching."

Teachers in School 6 give mixed marks to the observation practices used there. On average, they "agree" that "feedback on teaching can be used to improve teaching." They are somewhat less likely to "agree" that "feedback on teaching is concrete, specific," that "observation of teaching is a valuable professional tool," and that "when teachers use the feedback they receive, their teaching improves and students do better."

School 6's teachers give higher marks to those who observe and evaluate them. They "agree" that "those who observe teachers in this school strive to help teachers improve their teaching. . .strive to provide fair and valid evaluations of teachers. . .(and) make their observation criteria clear. They are slightly less likely to "agree" that "those who observe teachers in this school use fair, understandable standards for evaluating teaching."

2. Expectations and Practices (Tables 4-, 5-, and 6-I 4, -IS 4). As before, the expectations and reports are by teachers; the objects of those expectations and reports are administrators.

Consensus and Intensity. The average consensus score for all ten dimensions of observation measured in the survey and the individual consensus scores for each measure suggest considerable agreement on the matters dealt with. The consensus scores for Schools 4, 5, and 6 are among the highest for the eight schools in the survey. Typically, teachers expressed their views using "-2" and "+2" or stronger responses in an approval/disapproval scale which ranged from -3 to +3.

For teachers' views on ten dimensions of observation by administrators, the "most approved practices" are compared here with the "reported practices": what teachers said was actually happening in the school. Together, the observation options which are most approved, the similarity of the most approved practice and the reported practice, and the high intensity and consensus scores on most dimensions indicate that a rigorous practice of observation and evaluation had been consolidated in Schools 4 and 5. High marks given by teachers to the practice suggest that it is founded, in good part, on its perceived benefit to teachers and students. In School 6, it appears, teachers accord

administrators considerable latitude to expand and strengthen observation. In some dimensions, teachers approve most of options which are more vigorous than those they report are actually occurring.

Frequency Of Observation

Most Approved Practice: Twice per semester (Schools 4 and 6); once per semester (school 5).

Reported Practice: Twice per semester (School 4); once per semester (Schools 5 and 6).

Duration of Observation

Most Approved Practice: More than twenty minutes of a period, three or more days in a row (Schools 4 and 5); more than twenty minutes of a period, two days in a row (School 6). This duration has come to be stated by the director of secondary instruction as an expectation by the district for principals.

Reported Practice: More than twenty minutes, three or more successive days (Schools 4 and 5); on two successive days (School 6).

Leadup to Observation

Most Approved Practice: Negotiates with the teacher a good time to visit and appropriate things to look for.

Reported Practice: Same as most approved practice (Schools 4 and 6); tells the teacher when s/he will observe and what will be looked for (School 5).

Recording During Observation

Most Approved Practice: Equally approved in School 4 are using an observation form designed to help observers and using the form and making an audiotape of the class. In Schools 5 and 6, making descriptive notes on what happens in class and using a form designed to help observers are both approved.

Reported Practice: Uses the form and makes an audiotape of the class (School 4); makes descriptive notes on what happened in the class (Schools 5 and 6). NOTE: In School 4, the standard procedure is to place a carbon copy of the marked observation form and the audiotape of the class in the teacher's box soon after the observation. The tape functions as "evidence", but in a

much different sense than applies in an adversary evaluation proceeding.

Deference in Feedback

Most Approved Practice: Describes what happened in the class and makes suggestions. Almost as highly approved is describing what happened in the class and asking what the teacher thought of it. In School 5, this is one of the dimensions of observation on which teachers agree most.

Reported Practice: Describes what happened in the class and makes suggestions.

Followup after Observation

Most Approved Practice: Observe the teacher's class from time to time until there is improvement; observe the teacher's class once more. Here is another dimension on which teachers most agree.

Reported Practice: Observe the teacher's class from time to time until there is improvement (School 4); ask at some time what the teacher did about the matter (Schools 5 and 6). NOTE: "Until there is improvement" is an open-ended call for assistance. Teachers report that it is being satisfied in School 4.

Preparation for Observation

Most Approved Practice: Asks teachers to provide feedback on his/her observation and feedback procedures and skills. Also approved are: attends training on observation methods; brings in a trainer to coach him/her on observation methods. In all three schools, this is one of a few dimensions on which teachers are most agreed and, in School 4, feel most strongly.

Reported Practice: Attends training on observation methods. Note here that even the principal of School 4, who meets high expectations for an observer-administrator in many other ways, and whose practices of observation and evaluation are highly regarded by the faculty, appears not to ask them for their feedback on his performance.

Link of Observation to Evaluation

Most Approved Practice: In a case where no progress is shown in an important aspect of teaching over the period of one year, the administrator writes in the evaluation what happened and that progress has not been made (School 4); writes that the

administrator and teacher are working on some aspect of the teacher's practice (Schools 5 and 6); places the teacher on a kind of probation (School 6).

Reported Practice: Writes that the teacher should be given a lower overall rating this year (School 4); writes what has happened and that progress has not been made (Schools 5 and 6).

Praise from Observation

Most Approved Practices: Having observed consistently excellent work by a teacher, the administrator-observer writes specific praise in the teacher's evaluation; praises the teacher in person; mentions the teacher's performance to his/her department head and to administrators. As in the Big City schools, teachers in the Small City schools are most agreed and feel most strongly about this dimension of observation and evaluation.

Reported Practice: Mentions the teacher's performance to his/her department head and to administrators.

Initiative in Regard to a Teaching Practice

Most Approved Practice: In regard to a teaching practice which the administrator has come to believe should be used universally, the administrator uses the teaching practice in demonstrations or in the usual course of teaching (all three schools); nearly equally approved is making the teaching practice a standard item for teacher evaluation (Schools 4 and 5).

Reported Practice: Makes the teaching practice a standard item for teacher evaluation (Schools 4 and 6); uses the practice in demonstrations or in the usual course of teaching (School 5).

3. Some Interpretations

In School 4, teachers' expectations, reports, and assessments reflect a much approved and rigorous practice of observation and evaluation which, while it makes substantial demands on teachers, is equally demanding on administrators. Note teachers' calls for extensive preparation as an observer, for the ability to make suggestions regarding teaching practice, and for extensive followup observations which produce gains in teaching.

Many of the approval scores (means) are quite high--2.4, 2.5, 2.6 on a scale which reaches to 3--, as are the consensus scores (.7, .8., and .9 on a scale which tops at 1.0).on practices which call for a good deal from administrators. Unlike some other schools in the study, this school presents the risk of

failures of omission by administrators. For example, in some schools in the study teachers would be relieved if an administrator did not follow up on observations. In School 4, the scores suggest, teachers might well see rudeness in a failure to follow up.

The case study made of School 4 in 1982-1983 would suggest that the risk of conflict because of omissions is somewhat elevated because the observation practice was built largely by administrators' initiative. Thus, one cannot assume that teachers will always be able to state their expectations clearly or that they will feel the latitude to do so. The risk might be reduced by inviting and building an open climate of give and take on these matters.

While School 4's teachers are less agreed in their views toward department heads and teachers as potential observers, their expectations for the behavior of department heads and other teachers as observers are similar to their expectations for administrators as observers. That is, compared to teachers in other schools, these teachers accord considerable latitude to department heads and to other teachers to act as observers. The survey predated the 1983-1984 peer coaching experiment in School 4; one might project that the model of observation by administratrators laid a foundation for observation by department heads and teachers, and that there is considerable latitude to expand and strengthen peer coaching.

School 5 looks much like School 4 in its support for observation and evaluation procedures which demand much of all participants.

There may be opportunities for strengthening the observation practice in five dimensions on which the most approved practice is more extensive or rigorous than the reported practice: Leadup to Observation, Recording During Observation, Followup after Observation, Preparation for Observation, and Praise from Observation. In light of the strong support for observation, these differences between the most approved practice and the reported practice might be interpreted as a call for escalation in the rigor and give-and-take of observation.

For example, many of the teachers approve administrators' asking teachers for feedback on their observation procedures and skills. This might be done as a standard step of a post-observation conference. One may suspect that the administrator's asking for feedback and suggestions from teachers will increase administrators' latitude to give feedback and suggestions to teachers.

The implication, of course, is that administrators would put more time and energy into observation. In the case studies of

Schools 4 and 5, it appeared that an administrator would have great difficulty devoting more time and energy to the task than the administrators of School 4. School 5's administrators felt stretched thin by their efforts. If the administrators in Schools 4 and 5 have modeled and built support for observation practices, which thus came to be permitted or approved (with somewhat less consensus) for department heads and other teachers, they now may have the option to bring department heads and teachers into observation. School 4 was taking that step in its peer coaching experiment.

One interesting feature of the data for School 6 is the combination of strong and uniform support for some extensive and rigorous observation and evaluation practices with the lukewarm assessment of observation seen in Table 6-C. Teachers in School 6 report that they are observed by practices considerably more extensive and vigorous than those reported in Schools 1, 2, and 3. But like teachers in those schools, their expectations exceed their administrators' performance. Teachers in School 4, who expect and experience the most rigorous observation practices in any of the schools and who rate their observation practices and observers most favorably, also approve most of the open-ended follow-up: "observe again from time to time until there is improvement."

While the Big City and Small City schools operate in different circumstances, there are reasons in these findings to see a common pattern. That pattern might be construed as a call by teachers to move beyond evaluation seen largely as a practice of accountability toward more rigorous and negotiated observation and evaluation practices which also provide teachers powerful support for advancing their practices and recognition for what they do.

C. Schools 7 and 8: The Large Suburban High Schools.

Both schools were added to the study in the second year. Case study data were not obtained. Both schools' enrollments exceed 2,000 students. In both schools, department heads bear substantial responsibilities for observing teachers. They are the focus of this section. At the same time, we have reason to believe from examination of the other schools that latitude for department heads and teachers to observe teachers has been created by the administrators' modelling of the practice. In what follows, disparities between teachers' views of department heads and teachers' views of administrators as observers will be noted.

The return rate for the survey was 77% in both schools. In School 7, the principal and assistant principal organized the briefings of department heads and teachers, and visibly encouraged participation in the survey. A school secretary undertook collection of the surveys. In School 8, department heads and secretaries provided the same leadership and assistance.

1. Assessments of Observation and Observers (Tables 7-C and 8-C).

Teachers in Schools 7 and 8 give mixed marks to the observation practices used there. On average, they tend to "agree" that "feedback on teaching can be used to improve teaching." They are somewhat less likely to "agree" that "feedback on teaching is concrete, specific," that "observation of teaching is a valuable professional tool," and that "when teachers use the feedback they receive, their teaching improves and students do better."

School 7's teachers give similar marks to those who observe and evaluate them. They tend to "agree" that "those who observe teachers strive to provide fair and valid evaluations of teachers. . .(and) use fair, understandable standards for evaluating teaching." They are slightly less likely to "agree" that "those who observe teachers in this school strive to help teachers improve their teaching," or that "those who observe teachers in this school make their observation criteria clear."

School 8's teachers give slightly higher marks to those who observe and evaluate them. They tend to "agree" that "those who observe teachers strive to help teachers improve their teaching. . .strive to provide fair and valid evaluations of teachers. . . (and) use fair, understandable standards for evaluating teaching." They are slightly less likely to "agree" that "those who observe teachers in this school make their observation criteria clear."

2. Expectations and Practices (Tables 7- and 8-I 4 and -IS 4.

Consensus and Intensity. The average consensus score for all ten dimensions of observation measured in the survey and the consensus scores for each of those dimensions suggest that there often is considerable agreement in teachers' expectations regarding observation options for department heads. Typically, teachers expressed their expectations for department heads using "-2" and "+2" or stronger responses in an approval/disapproval scale which ranged from -3 to +3. In making their responses, they discriminate among the options offered them.

For teachers' views on ten dimensions of observation by department heads, the most approved practice was compared with the "reported practice" (what teachers said was actually happening in the school). Teachers' views toward adminstrators as observers are nearly identical to their views toward department heads as observers. In each of the ten comparisons below, the opinions and reports are those of teachers. The behavior being referred to is that of department heads. Occasionally, expectations for and reported practices of principals will be mentioned.

Frequency Of Observation

Most Approved Practice: Once per semester.
For administrators in School 7, once per year or less is equally approved by teachers.

Reported Practice: Once per semester.
Teachers in School 7 report that administrators observe them once per year, or less.

Duration of Observation

Most Approved Practice: More than twenty minutes of a single class period (School 7); more than twenty minutes of a class period, two, three, or more days in a row (School 8).

Reported Practice: More than twenty minutes of a single class period (School 7); more than twenty minutes of a class period, two days in a row (School 8).

Leadup to Observation

Most Approved Practices: Negotiates with the teacher a good time to visit and appropriate things to look for (both schools); tells the teacher when s/he will observe and what will be looked for (School 8).

Reported Practice: Tells the teacher when s/he will observe and what will be looked for.

Recording During Observation

Most Approved Practices: Makes descriptive notes on what happens in the class; nearly as approved was using an observation form designed to help observers.

Reported Practice: Makes descriptive notes on what happens in the class.

Deference in Feedback

Most Approved Practice: Describes what happened in the class and asks what the teacher thought of it. Almost as highly approved are describing what happened in the class and making suggestions, and asking what the teacher thought of the class. This is one of five dimensions on which teachers are most in agreement.

Reported Practice: Describes what happened in the class and asks what the teacher thought of it (School 7); describes what happened in the class and makes suggestions (School 8).

Followup after Observation

Most Approved Practices: Observes the teacher's class from time to time until there is improvement, and observes the teacher's class once more. This is another area of high agreement.

Reported Practice: Observe the teacher's class once more (both schools); ask at some time what the teacher did about the matter (School 8).

Preparation for Observation

Most Approved Practices: Asks teachers to provide feedback on his/her observation and feedback procedures and skills; attends training on observation methods. Another area of high agreement among teachers.

Reported Practice: Attends training on observation methods.

Link of Observation to Evaluation

Most Approved Practices: In a case where no progress is shown in an important aspect of teaching over the period of one year, the department head places the teacher "on evaluation," a kind of probation involving frequent observation and supervision. Or, in the same situation, the department head writes (in the evaluation) that the department head and teacher are working on some aspect of the teacher's practice. School 8's teachers also approve writing that the teacher should be given a lower overall rating this year.

Reported Practice: Writes what has happened and that progress has not been made. Taking the schools together, the first of the two most approved practices is more stringent in conventional terms than the reported practice. The second of the most approved practices is less stringent, in conventional terms, than the reported practice.

Praise from Observation

Most Approved Practices: Having observed consistently excellent performance by a teacher, the department head-observer writes specific praise in the teacher's evaluation. Nearly as great approval also goes to praising the teacher in person and to mentioning the teacher's performance to his/her department head and to administrators. As for other schools, This is the dimension on which teachers are most in agreement and most intense (mean intensity scores of +2.8 and +3 on a scale where the top response was +3. In this same dimension, the option "does nothing" (to praise the teacher) drew strong disapproval (-2.6 and -2.4.)

Reported Practice: Mentions the teacher's performance to his/her department head and to administrators. This item was used in all schools. For Schools 7 and 8, it appears that the item means that the department head mentions the teacher's performance to administrators.

Initiative in Regard to a Teaching Practice

Most Approved Practice: In regard to a teaching practice which the department head has come to believe should be used universally, the department head uses the teaching practice in demonstrations or in the usual course of teaching. Nearly identical approval goes to providing teachers information about the teaching practice and suggesting that teachers use it. NOTE: Teachers approve administrators' devoting required inservice

training time to the teaching practice. This is one of the dimensions on which School 8's teachers are in most agreement.

Reported Practices: Uses the practice, in demonstrations or in the usual course of teaching (School 7); provides teachers information about the practice and suggests that teachers use it (School 8).

3. Interpretations. The patterns of expectation and practice are similar at several points for Schools 7 and 8. These interpretations draw out somewhat different implications from the differences between them.

In School 7, teachers' expectations for department heads as observer-evaluators are much like their expectations for administrators in the same role. Typically, they agree somewhat less and are less intense in approving or disapproving the options for department heads, but the options most approved and disapproved tend to be the same. This similarity of expectations stands in stark constrast especially to Schools 2 and 3, where teachers approve no option in Frequency of Observation either for department heads or for teachers as observers. From this similarity of their expectations for administrators, department heads, and teachers, one might infer that teachers in School 7 perceive observation at least as much as a professional tool of improvement as a bureaucratic tool of accountability and personnel management.

The few disparities between teachers' expectations for administrators and their expectations for department heads (less frequent observation is approved for administrators, along with administrators' devoting required inservice time to a teaching practice) seem to be defined functionally. That is, when department heads carry some large part of the task of observation, observation by administrators can be less frequent, and decisions on the use of scarce inservice time may fall to the principal. Here, one might infer that School 7's teachers see their administrators and department heads as a unit, within which administrators play a functional role of "first among equals."

Teachers tend to agree most (and in some cases use the stronger response options) in those behavior dimensions which define the quality and rigor of interaction surrounding the observation, as distinct from the dimensions which define its extent (Frequency and Duration). These also tend to be dimensions which deal with what happens after a class is observed: Deference in Feedback, Followup after Observation, the Link of Observation to Evaluation, and Praise from Observation. (The degree of agreement and intensity of views on Praise from Observation probably should be taken as a demand rather than a preference).

Here is one way to think of the practical possibilities in the findings. Teachers report that department heads actually observe at about the rate of one class period per semester, per teacher. One might argue that observation at that rate is not a plausible tool for the advancement of teaching; it gathers too small a sample of the teacher's teaching and affords too little interaction between observer and teacher to sustain a rigorous grappling with the complexities of teaching. The low rate of observation and interaction makes it difficult to achieve a satisfying and concretely productive exchange about teaching. This may account for teachers' somewhat lukewarm assessment of observation practices in Table 7-C. That is, observation does not attain what is expected of it.

Once per semester is the maximum Frequency of Observation which teachers approve; this makes sense if teachers are more likely to perceive the intrusion than the benefit of observation. One class period per observation is not quite the maximum approved rate; the data indicate that teachers would tolerate the observation of a class two days in a row. Teachers' approval of the Followup options "observes the class once more" and "observes the class from time to time until there is improvement" implies that multiple observation could or should occur more often.

An expansion in quantity of observation may be necessary to attain, but also depends upon increased quality and value in the interaction. A cue comes from the dimension Link of Observation to Evaluation, where the two most approved practices straddle the reported practice. Teachers might be understood as saying, "If a teacher isn't performning well, either help the teacher or put the teacher 'on evaluation' (a stringent form of help), but don't mess around in the middle complaining about the teachers' performance in written evaluations." On the other side of the coin, in these data School 7's teachers are nearly demanding more specific praise of their work in their written evaluations. One might construe all this as a call for a pattern of observation which is more forthright and more consequential both in correcting deficiencies and in giving recognition for good work.

Finally, School 7's teachers approve, rather strongly, of department heads' and administrators' asking teachers for feedback on their observation skills and procedures. The overall pattern of findings offers some reason to believe that, while this "feedback" will often sound like "complaints", it will often be intended to make observation more useful. While the survey did not distinguish, it may be important to distinguish between the kind of feedback on observation which could be obtained in a department meeting or in a survey, from the kind of feedback which could be obtained as the final event of a post-observation conference. The latter will be more direct, and may be a little harder to take, but it stands a better chance of being made specific and useful.

If this interpretation of things has some merit, it suggests the possibility of movement toward a pattern of observation which is understood first as a source of recognition and support for continuously improving professional teachers, second as a source of help when teachers are having some trouble, and third as a tool for making personnel decisions. In any case, it doesn't mess around; in all cases, its products and consequences are appreciable and clear.

From that view of things and from the data, one can infer at least four initiatives which could be taken toward such an observation practice:

o Describe and discuss the desired outcomes and character of observation/evaluation. The aim would be to redefine "evaluation."

o Include a request for specific and usable feedback on observation practices as a standard part of post-observation conferences. (This is an opportunity for observers to model for teachers how feedback on one's behavior can be solicited, received, and used to good effect.)

o Arrange for teachers to observe those who usually observe them. (This is an opportunity for teachers to learn the magnitude of the expectations which they place on observers.)

o Make it the policy and practice that written praise of effective work in the classroom is as specific and detailed as written criticisms of ineffective work.

Observers would attempt to gain greater capacity to influence and support teachers' behavior in the classroom by giving teachers greater capacity to influence and support observers' behavior in observation. This tactic of reciprocity might be described as an attempt to lead rather than push. The tactic makes more demands on knowledge and skill than on authority to observe. Observers might need more skill, time, and support than they now have.

In School 8 as in some of other schools, teachers combine modest assessments of observation with solid approval, in three dimensions, to observation options which are more extensive and assertive than those being used (Duration of Observation, Follow-up After Observation, and Link of Observation to Evaluation--also see Initiative in Regard to a Teaching Practice). Here, as before, it would seem that teachers are withholding their highest assessments of observation because it is less substantial or less consequential than they would like.

In four other dimensions where the most approved practice tends to differ from the reported practice (Leadup to

Observation, Deference in Feedback, Preparation for Observation, and Praise from Observation), teachers appear to be calling for an observer-teacher relationship which is more reciprocal, negotiated, and balanced than teachers perceive it to be. There is approval for negotiating the time and focus of observations, for observers' giving the teacher both a description of the lesson and a chance to interpret it before suggestions are made, for observers' asking teachers for feedback on the observer's procedures and skills, and particularly for the observers' providing teachers' specific praise of their excellent work.

Might it be that teachers withhold their most favorable assessments of observation and evaluation because the present practice is a compromise which, too often, neither provides effective support and recognition for excellence and improvement nor imposes effective sanctions and correctives for mediocrity and complacence? There are reasons to believe that this might be the case.

Teaching, assessing teaching, and helping teachers all are complex and demanding activities requiring considerable time, skill, knowledge, shared terms, and shared understanding. In all these regards, department heads and teachers may find themselves in a difficult situation. It will be difficult for the teacher to grant, or for the department head to claim, the knowledge and skill needed to engage in a rigorous examination of the teacher's work. While the office of department head carries some authority in the matter, that authority does not substitute for the knowledge and skill. To examine teaching closely and establish a rigorous relation with the teacher takes time, which the department head may not have. Thus, it may be difficult to achieve the stature with regard to teaching which the observer-teacher relation requires. Finally, a few teachers' negative reactions or disapproval of observation and observers may be sufficient to deter the department head, even in the presence of an open but not immediately rewarding stance on the part of other teachers. It would be hard for the department head to see observation as a promising way to advance the department. The department head rationally would seek other avenues, thus further reducing the time budget and perceived value of examining teaching in the classroom.

Under such conditions, the observation-evaluation procedure may be pushed back toward formal minimums and characteristics. The procedure would be defined more as a device for finding and correcting incompetence than for recognizing and advancing competence. Especially in the former arena, the observer-evaluator would be cautious because teachers' status and perhaps employment potentially are at stake. The observer-teacher relationship would be more guarded. The department head is in something of a marginal position, where it will require considerable skill and strength of character for the department

head to offer teachers a negotiated relationship. To let the teacher suggest the times and foci of the observation may be to place "off limits" some important weaknesses in the teacher's performance. To describe the lesson and then give the teacher the first crack at interpreting what went on may be to mire oneself in the teacher's self-justification, where it will be difficult to go on and make suggestions which are, in effect, calls for change in the teacher's behavior. To invite feedback on the observer's procedure and skills is to invite verbal abuse, but worse, to allow the teacher to shift the moral burden of change back to the observer. School 4's principal, who is the most vigorous instructional leader in the study, does not, in the reports of his teachers, ask their feedback on his observation practices. Department heads probably are more vulnerable.

In such ways, the observation-evaluation procedure would be organized to deal with the mediocre and complacent few rather than to support and recognize the competent and aspiring many. From the point of view of the aspiring many, the observation and evaluation procedures would fail on both counts. That is, the procedures would would neither provide them stimulation, support, and recognition for excellence and improvement nor relieve them of the burden of working beside the mediocre and complacent.

The interpretation suggests at least two possible remedies. One would be to attempt to separate the supportive and evaluative functions of observation, as in a peer coaching program. A persuasive case can be made for the option in the terms employed here.

However, that case has two serious flaws. First, peer coaching is unlikely to lift from teachers the burden of working beside others who are mediocre and complacent. If anything, peer coaching will increase the burden, because it will give teachers greater specific knowledge of each other's work (where they only suspected that one of their colleagues does mediocre work, they now will know that firsthand and in detail), and will give them a specific responsibility not only for their own performance but also for helping another.

Second, in the same stroke that peer coaching reduces the potentially degrading effects of connecting support and evaluation, it also reduces the possibility of formal recognition of excellence. Teachers are so highly agreed and so intense in their approval of the option "Writes specific praise in the teacher's evalution" (see Praise from Observation) that their opinion probably should be interpreted more as a demand than as an option. (The researchers have been surprised repeatedly when teachers who state directly that their formal written evaluations have little or no bearing on their future also hold strong opinions about what is written. We conclude that they attribute

considerable value to "the record" of their work. Whether or not anyone ever reads it, it is still a record of their career.)

An alternative to separating support of teachers from evaluation of teachers is to strengthen the observation-evaluation procedure and to move the observer-teacher relationship toward an emphasis on support and advancement of teaching. The elements of the earlier interpretation would come into play. Together, administrators, department heads, and teachers might resort to initiatives such as these:

o Discuss and define in detail what is desired in the observation/evaluation procedure. The aims would be to confirm expectations of the sort which appear in the data reported here and to enlist support for forging the necessary practices and relations.

o At any given time, focus attention on specific elements of the teaching repertoire. This will help to produce the shared language and shared understandings which a more rigorous, interesting, and supportive joint examination of teaching in the classroom requires. It is too much to ask department heads to assert themselves, or for teachers to accept department heads as effective sources of support, across the entire range of the teaching repertoire.

o Arrange the times and occasions in which department heads can achieve the skills and stature, with regard to teaching, which they need to be of genuine assistance to teachers and to be accepted by teachers as sources of assistance. Such stature needs to be attained in a manner which is visible to teachers. Sending a department head to training, for example, would probably be less effective for this purpose than engaging the department head as one of the trainers in an inservice session for the faculty.

o Department heads could seek out the teachers who are most receptive to observation as a source of support and who expect most of the observing relation, and then could make explicit agreements to discover how observation could be most useful and satisfactory. To these teachers, department heads might feel more free to offer the more negotiated and balanced relation which many teachers seem to be asking for. Particularly, department heads might ask these teachers for useful feedback on their observation procedures and skills.

o For much the same group of teachers, department heads might exert themselves to produce more insightful, thorough, and specific praise of excellent work, to deliver this praise directly to the teacher, and to write it in teachers' evaluations, taking steps to make sure that teachers notice the new effort.

o By concentrating on the formation of productive and satisfying observing relations between department heads and the teachers who are most receptive to it, department heads might aim, over time, to build a "working majority" which sustains observation as a source of intellectual stimulation and as a tool of support, recognition, and advancement of teaching.

By making observation more valuable, consequential, and supported on its positive side, department heads reasonably can hope to make observation a more effective tool for correcting mediocrity and sloth. In Schools 4 and 5, where observation and evaluation by administrators were built up in that way, the apparent contradiction between "support" and "evaluation" tended to disappear. There, it appeared, observation systems capable of providing real help also were trusted to render fair and valid evaluations. In School 4, over a period of three years, two tenured teachers in a faculty of 45 were requested to resign on grounds of their specific inadequacies as teachers, and did so. It appears significant that this was a late-stage development, a byproduct of having built up observation as an affirmative and well-supported professional tool.

Building and sustaining affirmative relations requires considerable time, both in the sense of hours per week and in the sense of years devoted to the effort. Whether department heads have the hours in a week, or the support to persist, is likely to depend on their administrators in the school and district.

LIST OF TABLES

The following tables are presented by school. For each school, there are eight tables. The tables are labeled at the upper left with the school number (1-8) and:

"-C". Respondents' Assessments of Observation. (Item and scale scores for administrators', department heads's and teachers' ratings of observation practices and observers in their school.)

"-I 4". Teachers' Views of Observation of Teachers
"-IS 4". " , (scores)

"-I 3". Department Heads' Views of Observation of Teachers
"-IS 3". " , (scores)

"-I 2". Administrators' Views of Observation of Teachers
"-IS 2". " , (scores)

"-H". Group Characteristics. (Age, sex, years in position, etc., for Administrators, Department Heads, Teachers).

TABLE 5-C: RESPONDENTS' ASSESSMENTS OF OBSERVATION

Item range: 1=strongly disagree, 2=disagree, 3=not sure, 4=agree, 5=strongly agree.

ASSESSMENTS OF OBSERVATION PRACTICES	Admins	D.Heads	Teachers
1. In my school, feedback on teaching is concrete, specific.	3.7	2.6	2.3
2. In my school, feedback on teaching can be used to improve teaching.	4.0	3.4	3.1
3. In my school, teachers ignore feedback on their teaching.	3.3	4.0	2.9
4. When teachers use the feedback they receive, their teaching improves and students do better.	3.7	3.6	3.2
5. Being observed and receiving feedback is a comfortable and welcome experience for teachers in this school.	3.3	3.1	2.7
6. In this school, observation of teaching is an empty, useless ritual.	2.0	2.6	2.7
7. In this school, observation of teachers is a valuable professional tool.	3.3	2.7	2.6
Mean scale score (scale range = 7-35): (Items 3 and 6 reversed for scale score.)	24.7	20.8	20.3

ASSESSMENTS OF THOSE WHO OBSERVE TEACHERS	Admins	D.Heads	Teachers
1. Those who observe teachers in this school strive to help teachers improve their teaching.	4.3	2.7	2.8
2. Those who observe teachers in this school strive to provide fair and valid evaluations of teachers.	4.3	3.3	3.5
3. Those who observe teachers in this school make their observation criteria clear.	3.7	3.0	3.1
4. Those who observe teachers in this school use fair, understandable standards for evaluating teaching.	4.0	3.3	3.4
Mean scale score (scale range = 4-20)	16.3	12.3	12.8

TABLE 1-1 4 A NORMAL GROUP'S VIEWS OF OBSERVATIONS OF TEACHERS

GRID ANSWERED:
% of All Respondents

TEACHERS
73%

RESULT WHEN:
Average Consensus
Average Intensity
Average Tendency
KEY: Tolerable Behavior
Most approved Behavior

ADMINISTRATORS	DEPARTMENT HEAD	TEACHERS
.40	.33	.25
1.85	1.81	1.89
.27	.02	-.23
A	B	T

Possible Practice
Reported Practice

Less 1 2 3 4 5 More

Frequency of Observation..... 2
2
1
Duration of Observation..... 2
1
1
Lead-up to Observation..... 2
3
3
Recording during Observation..... 2
2
1
Conference in Feedback..... 4
5
4
Follow-up after Observation..... 3
3
2
Preparation for Observation..... 2
3
3
Link of Observation to Evaluation..... 3
3
0
Praise from Observation..... 3
2
2
Noninitiative in regard to a teaching practice.... 2
2
2

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TABLE I-18 4 A NOMINAL GROUP'S VIEWS OF OBSERVATIONS OF TEACHERS

WHO RESPONDED:
% of All Respondents

TEACHERS
73%

ABOUT WHOM:	ADMINISTRATORS	DEPARTMENT HEAD	TEACHERS
Average Consensus (0,1)	.48	.33	.25
Average Intensity (0,3)	1.85	1.81	1.89
Average Tendency (-3,+3)	.27	.02	-.23
KEY:	A	D	T

Possible Practice / Reported Practice		Less 1	2	3	4	5	More 6++	TEN	INT	CON
Frequency of Observation	A	2.1	-.6	.4	.8	-.4	-.8		-.2	2.4	.3
	D	1.5	-.1	.3	-.2	-1.0	-1.1		-.6	2.3	.4
	T	1.1	-.2	.1	-.1	-.7	-.7		-.5	2.2	.3
Duration of Observation	A	1.9	-1.1	.1	.7	-.2	-1.1		-.5	2.4	.4
	D	1.1	-1.1	.0	.6	-.2	-1.1		-.5	2.3	.3
	T	1.3	-.8	.0	.0	-.7	-1.2		-.8	2.3	.3
Leadup to Observation	A	1.6	.6	.9	.9	.2	-1.3		.2	2.2	.3
	D	2.5	-.1	.5	.7	.0	-.9		.0	2.1	.3
	T	2.0	-.0	-.1	.7	.1	-.6		-.2	2.3	.2
Recording during Observation	A	1.9	-.7	.7	1.0	1.0	-.5		.5	2.0	.4
	D	2.0	-.0	.3	.7	.9	-.4		.2	2.0	.3
	T	1.0	-.0	.0	.5	.2	-.7		-.1	2.0	.3
oo Reference in Feedback	A	3.7	-.3	.0	1.6	1.1	1.1	-2.0	.2	2.3	.5
	D	5.0	-.9	-.4	1.0	.7	.7	-1.0	-.1	2.2	.5
	T	3.7	-1.4	-1.0	.1	.0	.0	-1.3	-.7	2.5	.4
Follow-up after Observation	A	2.1	-1.6	1.0	.0	1.3	1.3		.0	2.3	.6
	D	2.0	-1.6	.7	.4	.0	.6		.3	2.1	.5
	T	2.0	-1.3	-.1	-.2	.0	.0		-.2	2.5	.2
Preparation for Observation	A	2.4	-2.0	.4	1.2	.9	1.7		.5	2.3	.5
	D	2.0	-1.7	.5	.9	.6	1.1		.3	2.2	.4
	T	2.0	-1.7	-.1	.5	.3	.0		-.1	2.3	.3
Link of Observation to Evaluation	A	2.0	-2.1	.5	1.3	1.3	1.4		.6	2.2	.7
	D	2.0	-2.2	.3	.7	.4	.1		-.1	2.1	.5
Praise from Observation	A	2.0	-2.1	2.0	1.0	2.2	.3		1.1	2.6	.8
	D	1.0	-2.1	1.9	1.7	1.6	.2		.9	2.5	.7
	T	1.5	-1.0	1.4	1.0	1.1	.1		.6	2.5	.5
oo Initiative in regard to a teaching practice	A	1.0	-1.9	1.3	1.7	1.2	-.1	-2.0	.0	2.3	.7
	D	2.0	-2.0	1.4	1.6	.8	-.3	-1.0	.0	2.4	.6
	T	1.0	-2.1	1.3	1.5	.1	-1.9		-.2	2.5	.6

TABLE 1-1 3 [illegible] VIEWS OF OBSERVATIONS OF TEACHERS

[illegible] RANKED:
% of All Respondents

DEPARTMENT HEAD
19%

ABOUT WHEN:	ADMINISTRATORS	DEPARTMENT HEAD	TEACHERS
Average Consensus	.51	.49	.42
Average Intensity	1.93	1.79	1.90
Average Tendency	.08	-.05	-.09
KEY: Tolerable Behavior	aaaaaaaa	dddddddd	tttttttt
Most approved Behavior	A	D	T

[illegible]

Possible Practice → / Reported Practice ↓		Less 1	2	3	4	More 5	6+
Frequency of Observation	1	AAAAAAaaaaaaaaaaaaaa					
	1	DDDDDDdddddddd					
	1	TTTTTTT					
Duration of Observation	2	AAAAAAaaaaaaa					
	1	aaaaaaaaaaaaDDDDDD					
	1	TTTTTTT					
Lead-up to Observation	1	AAAAAAaaaaaaa					
	0	aaaaaaDDDDDD					
	5	ttttttttttttttTTTTTTT					
Recording during Observation	1	aaaaaaAAAAAAaaaaaaa					
	0	aaaaaaaaaaaaDDDDDDaaaaaa					
	0	ttttttttttttttTTTTTTtttttt					
[illegible]eference in Feedback	2	aaaaaaAAAAAAaaaaaaa					
	0	aaaaaaDDDDDDaaaaaa					
	0	ttttttTTTTTTtttttt					
Follow-up after Observation	1	AAAAAAaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaa					
	0	DDDDDDaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaa					
	0	TTTTTTtttttttttttttttttttt					
Preparation for Observation	0	AAAAAAaaaaaaa			aaaaaaa		
	0	DDDDDDaaaaaaa			aaaaaa		
	0	TTTTTTtttttttt					
Link of Observation to Evaluation	3	aaaaaaAAAAAAaaaaaaaaaaaa					
	0	aaaaaaDDDDDDaaaaaa					
	*						
Praise from Observation	2	aaaaaaaaaaaaAAAAAA					
	1	aaaaaaaaaaaaDDDDDD					
	1	TTTTTTtttttttttttt					
[illegible]nitiative in regard to a teaching practice	2	aaaaaaAAAAAAaaaaaaaaaa					
	2	aaaaaaDDDDDDaaaaaa					
	0	ttttttTTTTTTtttttt					

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TABLE 1-IS 3 A NOMINAL GROUP'S VIEWS OF OBSERVATIONS OF TEACHERS

WHO ANSWERED:
% of All Respondents

DEPARTMENT HEAD
19%

ABOUT WHEN:	ADMINISTRATORS	DEPARTMENT HEAD	TEACHERS
Average Consensus (0,1)	.51	.49	.42
Average Intensity (0,3)	1.95	1.79	1.98
Average Tendency (-3,+3)	.08	-.06	-.28
KEY:	A	D	T

Possible Practice → / Reported Practice ↓		Less 1	2	3	4	5	More 6+	TEN	INT	CON
Frequency of Observation	A 1.3	.6	.6	.0	-1.7	-2.3		-.6	2.3	.5
	D 1.0	1.2	.5	-.7	-2.0	-2.7		-.8	2.4	.7
	T 1.0	.9	-.3	-1.3	-2.4	-2.6		-1.2	2.5	.6
Duration of Observation	A 2.0	-1.3	.6	.6	-2.1	-2.7		-1.0	2.6	.6
	D 1.0	.0	.0	.1	-2.4	-3.0		-1.0	2.6	.5
	T 1.0	-.3	-.6	.3	-2.4	-3.0		-1.1	2.7	.5
Leadup to Observation	A 1.0	-.6	1.1	1.1	-1.0	-2.3		-.3	2.4	.4
	D .0	-.7	.0	.7	-1.4	-.4		-.4	2.3	.2
	T 5.0	-1.1	-.7	.1	.3	.4		-.2	2.6	.1
Recording during Observation	A 1.3	-.1	1.0	1.4	1.4	-.6		.7	2.2	.4
	D .0	.0	.6	1.0	.7	-.9		.3	2.0	.4
	T .0	.6	.7	1.3	.9	-1.3		.5	1.9	.6
**Reference in Feedback	A 2.0	-2.0	-1.0	1.3	1.9	.9	-2.3	-.2	2.3	.7
	D .0	-2.0	-1.3	1.0	2.0	1.4	-1.6	-.1	2.2	.7
	T .0	-2.4	-2.0	.6	1.0	.7	-1.9	-.7	2.2	.6
Follow-up after Observation	A 1.0	-2.1	1.7	1.3	1.6	1.4		.9	2.2	.9
	D .0	-.7	1.3	.9	.6	.3		.6	1.5	.8
	T .0	-1.3	1.0	.6	.7	.3		.3	2.2	.4
Preparation for Observation	A .0	-1.3	.9	.7	-.7	.4		.2	2.3	.4
	D .0	-1.4	.7	.4	-.9	.6		.0	2.1	.5
	T .0	-1.3	.7	.1	-.6	-.1		-.1	2.2	.2
Link of Observation to Evaluation	A 2.0	-1.6	.4	1.6	.7	1.3		.5	2.0	.7
	D .0	-1.1	.6	.9	.6	-.1		.2	1.7	.5
Praise from Observation	A 1.7	-1.7	2.0	2.3	2.7	-.3		1.3	2.7	.9
	D 1.0	-1.6	2.0	2.1	2.3	-.4		1.2	2.5	.9
	T 1.0	-1.7	2.1	2.0	2.0	-.4		1.1	2.3	.9
**Initiative in regard to a teaching practice	A 2.0	-2.0	1.7	2.1	1.1	.0	-2.7	.0	2.5	.7
	D 2.0	-1.9	1.7	2.3	.9	-1.0	-2.0	.0	2.5	.7
	T .0	-2.0	1.0	1.7	1.7	-1.4		.2	2.2	.7

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TABLE 1-1 2 A NORMAL GROUP'S VIEWS OF OBSERVATIONS OF TEACHERS

GRID ANSWERED: ADMINISTRATORS
% of All Respondents 0%

ABOUT WHEN:	ADMINISTRATORS	DEPARTMENT HEAD	TEACHERS
Average Consensus	.38	.46	.47
Average Intensity	1.72	1.75	1.71
Average Tendency	.37	.39	.39
KEY: Tolerable Behavior	aaaaaaaa	dddddddd	tttttttt
Most approved Behavior	A	D	T

Possible Practice ——————)
Reported Practice ——————v

Least 1 2 3 4 5 Most 6++

Frequency of Observation	2	
	0	
	0	
Duration of Observation	3	
	0	
	0	
Lead-up to Observation	2	
	0	
	0	
Recording during Observation	3	
	0	
	0	
ce&reference in Feedback	4	
	0	
	0	
Follow-up after Observation	5	
	0	
	0	
Preparation for Observation	2	
	0	
	0	
Link of Observation to Evaluation	4	
	0	
	*	
Praise from Observation	2	
	0	
	0	
ce&initiative in regard to a teaching practice	2	
	0	
	0	

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TABLE 1-IS 2 A NORMAL GROUP'S VIEWS OF OBSERVATIONS OF TEACHERS

AND ANSWERED:
% of All Respondents

ADMINISTRATORS
8%

ABOUT WHOM:

	ADMINISTRATORS	DEPARTMENT HEAD	TEACHERS
Average Consensus (0,1)	.58	.46	.47
Average Intensity (0,3)	1.72	1.75	1.71
Average Tendency (-3,+3)	.37	.29	.29
KEY:	A	D	T

Possible Practice → / Reported Practice ↓		Less 1	2	3	4	More 5	>5	TEN	INT	CON
Frequency of Observation	A 1.5	-2.3	-.3	.7	1.0	.7		-.1	2.2	.4
	D .0	-1.0	-.7	1.0	1.0	-.5		-.1	2.5	.8
	T .0	-1.0	1.0	1.3	-.5	-1.0		-.1	2.1	.2
Duration of Observation	A 3.0	-1.7	-1.0	2.7	1.3	.0		.2	2.5	.4
	D .0	-1.7	1.0	2.3	.7	.0		.4	2.4	.3
	T .0	-1.7	1.0	2.3	.3	.0		.3	2.5	.2
Lead-up to Observation	A 1.5	1.7	.3	.0	.0	-1.7		.1	2.3	.2
	D .0	1.3	.3	.0	.0	-1.3		.1	2.1	.1
	T .0	.7	.3	.0	-.3	-.7		.0	2.1	-.1
Recording during Observation	A 2.5	-.3	1.0	1.3	.7	-.7		.5	1.4	.7
	D .0	.3	1.0	1.3	.0	-1.3		.3	1.4	.8
	T .0	1.3	1.3	1.3	.7	-1.7		.6	1.6	.9
∞Deference in Feedback	A 4.0	-.7	-.3	.7	1.7	.7	-1.3	.1	1.8	.6
	D .0	-.7	-.3	.7	1.7	.7	-1.3	.1	1.7	.6
	T .0	-.7	-.3	.7	1.7	.7	-1.3	.0	1.8	.6
Follow-up after Observation	A 4.5	-1.3	1.0	1.0	1.7	1.0		.8	2.0	.8
	D .0	-1.3	1.0	1.0	1.7	1.0		.7	1.9	.7
	T .0	-1.7	.7	1.0	1.7	.7		.4	2.1	.6
Preparation for Observation	A 2.0	-1.3	.7	2.0	.7	1.7		.8	1.9	.7
	D .0	-1.3	.7	2.0	.7	1.7		.8	1.9	.7
	T .0	-1.3	.7	2.0	.7	.7		.5	1.8	.5
Link of Observation to Evaluation	A 4.0	-2.0	1.0	1.0	1.0	.0		.3	2.3	.4
	D .0	-2.0	1.0	1.0	1.0	.0		.2	2.3	.4
Praise from Observation	A 2.0	-2.3	2.7	2.7	2.0	1.0		1.6	2.9	.9
	D .0	-2.3	2.7	2.7	2.0	1.0		1.6	2.9	.9
	T .0	-2.3	2.7	2.7	2.0	1.7		1.6	2.9	1.0
∞Initiative in regard to a teaching practice	A 2.0	-1.7	1.3	.3	1.7	.3	-2.0	.0	1.8	.8
	D .0	-1.7	1.3	1.3	1.7	.3	-2.0	.2	1.8	.9
	T .0	-1.7	1.3	1.7	.3	-1.7		.0	1.9	.8

TABLE 1-H GROUP CHARACTERISTICS AND VIEWS

AND ANSWERED:

	ADMINISTRATORS	DEPARTMENT HEAD	TEACHERS
Average Age			
Female	33.33	44.14	44.21
American Native, Indian	33.33	14.29	44.44
Asian-American	33.33	.00	.00
Black, Negro	.00	.00	.00
Mexican-American, Hispanic	.00	28.57	11.11
White	.00	.00	7.41
	66.67	71.43	81.48
Who Are Teachers	.00	.00	100.00
Who Are Dept. Heads	.00	100.00	.00
Average Years in Position	4.33	8.43	17.09
Average Years in This School	3.00	6.29	8.85
Average Activities Scale Score (5 = least active, 15 = most active	14.00	12.57	10.41
Who Spend Discretionary Time:			
In a faculty lounge	33.33	14.29	33.56
In a faculty lunchroom	33.33	.00	7.41
In a preparation room	.00	71.43	44.44
In the department office	.00	85.71	59.26
In the school office	66.67	28.57	3.70
In an unused classroom	.00	28.57	37.04
In the schools hallways	33.33	14.29	3.70
In the school library	.00	42.86	14.81
In other places	.00	14.29	33.33
Average Assessment of Observation of Teachers (7 = least favorable, 35 = most favorable)	24.67	28.86	28.15
Average Assessment of Evaluation of Teachers (4 = least favorable, 20 = most favorable)	16.33	12.29	12.81

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TABLE 2-C: RESPONDENTS' ASSESSMENTS OF OBSERVATION

Item range: 1=strongly disagree, 2=disagree, 3=not sure, 4=agree, 5=strongly agree.

ASSESSMENTS OF OBSERVATION PRACTICES	Admins	D.Heads	Teachers
1. In my school, feedback on teaching is concrete, specific.	3.7	2.8	3.2
2. In my school, feedback on teaching can be used to improve teaching.	4.0	4.3	3.2
3. In my school, teachers ignore feedback on their teaching.	2.7	2.9	2.9
4. When teachers use the feedback they receive, their teaching improves and students do better.	4.3	3.1	3.1
5. Being observed and receiving feedback is a comfortable and welcome experience for teachers in this school.	4.3	2.6	2.8
6. In this school, observation of teaching is an empty, useless ritual.	1.3	2.4	2.5
7. In this school, observation of teachers is a valuable professional tool.	4.0	3.3	3.0
Mean scale score (scale range = 7-35): (Items 3 and 6 reversed for scale score.)	28.3	22.8	21.9

ASSESSMENTS OF THOSE WHO OBSERVE TEACHERS	Admins	D.Heads	Teachers
1. Those who observe teachers in this school strive to help teachers improve their teaching.	4.3	3.0	3.3
2. Those who observe teachers in this school strive to provide fair and valid evaluations of teachers.	4.7	3.5	3.4
3. Those who observe teachers in this school make their observation criteria clear.	3.3	3.4	2.9
4. Those who observe teachers in this school use fair, understandable standards for evaluating teaching.	3.3	3.4	3.2
Mean scale score (scale range = 4-20)	15.6	13.3	12.9

TABLE 2-1 4 A NOMINAL GROUP'S VIEWS OF OBSERVATIONS OF TEACHERS

WHO ANSWERED: TEACHERS
% of All Respondents 7%

ABOUT WHOM:	ADMINISTRATORS	DEPARTMENT HEAD	TEACHERS
Average Consensus	.48	.31	.38
Average Intensity	1.71	1.74	1.71
Average Tendency	.32	-.26	-.43
KEY: Tolerable Behavior	aaaaaaaa	dddddddd	tttttttt
Most approved Behavior	A	D	T

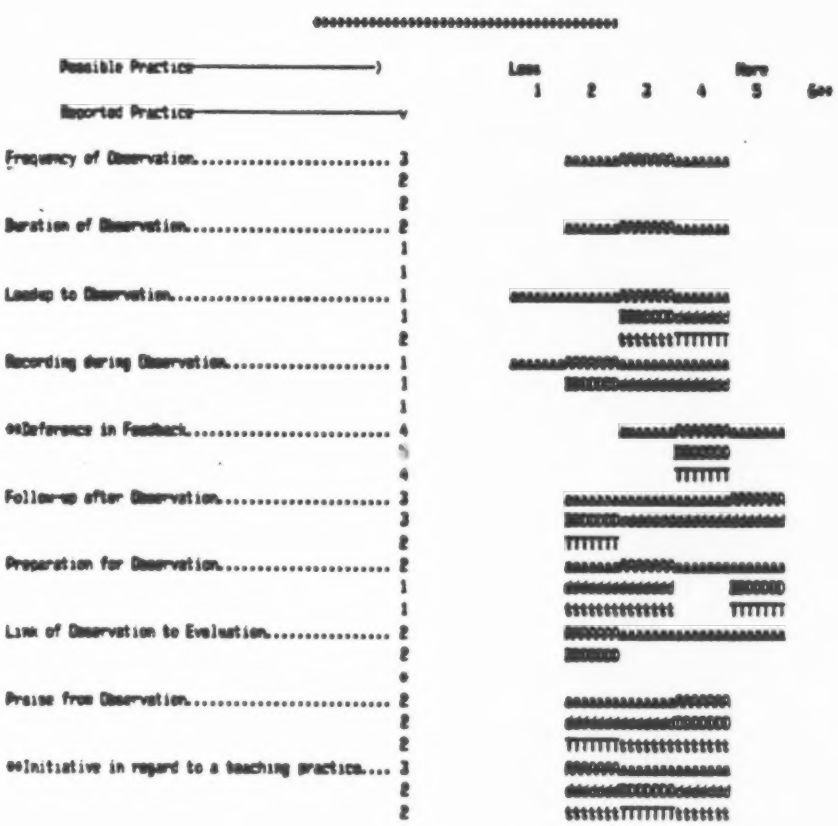

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TABLE 2-15 4 A NORMATIVE GROUP'S VIEWS OF OBSERVATIONS OF TEACHERS

WHO RESPONDED:
% of All Respondents

TEACHERS
76%

ABOUT WHOM:	ADMINISTRATORS	DEPARTMENT HEAD	TEACHERS
Average Consensus (0,1)	.48	.31	.38
Average Intensity (0,3)	1.71	1.74	1.71
Average Tendency (-3,+3)	.32	-.26	-.43
KEY:	A	D	T

oooooooooooooooooooooooooooooooooooooooooooooo

Possible Practice → / Reported Practice ↓		Less 1	2	3	4	More 5	6++	TEN	INT	CON
Frequency of Observation	A	2.6	-1.1	.8	1.8	.2	-.8		-.1	2.1	.5
	D	1.8	-.5	-.6	-.8	-1.2	-1.4		-1.1	2.1	.3
	T	1.5	-.5	-.4	-1.0	-1.4	-1.8		-1.3	2.2	.4
Duration of Observation	A	2.2	-.8	.4	1.1	.2	-.8		.0	2.1	.4
	D	1.4	-.5	-.3	-.1	-.7	-1.1		-.8	2.1	.3
	T	1.4	-.6	-.5	-.2	-1.1	-1.4		-1.2	2.2	.4
Leadup to Observation	A	1.1	.7	.9	1.2	.4	-1.0		.5	1.9	.5
	D	1.0	-.9	-.2	.2	.0	-.9		-.4	2.0	.3
	T	2.0	-1.2	-.6	.0	.1	-.4		-.5	2.1	.2
Recording during Observation	A	1.4	.2	1.3	1.1	1.2	-1.6		.6	1.9	.7
	D	1.3	-.5	.2	.1	.1	-1.6		-.5	2.0	.3
	T	1.0	-.1	-.1	-.1	-.2	-1.6		-.6	1.7	.3
oo Reference in Feedback	A	3.9	-1.2	-.3	.9	1.2	1.0	-1.3	.1	2.1	.5
	D	4.0	-1.8	-1.0	-.1	.3	.0	-1.2	-.7	2.2	.4
	T	4.3	-1.9	-1.2	-.1	.1	-.1	-.9	-.8	2.2	.4
Follow-up after Observation	A	2.2	-1.5	.9	.7	1.4	1.5		.8	2.1	.8
	D	2.5	-1.3	.5	.1	.3	.3		-.1	2.2	.4
	T	2.3	-.8	.2	-.2	-.2	-.5		-.4	2.1	.3
Preparation for Observation	A	2.3	-1.2	.9	1.6	.3	1.5		.8	2.0	.7
	D	1.0	-1.4	.2	.7	-.5	.7		-.1	2.1	.3
	T	1.0	-1.6	.2	.5	-.4	.6		-.2	2.2	.3
Link of Observation to Evaluation	A	2.5	-1.7	1.4	.5	.8	.8		.5	2.1	.6
	D	2.0	-1.4	.4	-.4	-.5	-.6		-.7	2.2	.4
Praise from Observation	A	2.4	-1.7	2.1	1.8	2.4	-1.1		.9	2.7	.8
	D	2.3	-1.8	1.1	1.8	1.1	-1.3		.1	2.6	.5
	T	1.8	-1.6	1.4	1.8	1.1	-1.4		.1	2.5	.5
oo Initiative in regard to a teaching practice	A	2.6	-1.6	1.7	1.5	1.3	-.2	-2.2	.1	2.2	.7
	D	1.8	-1.7	1.2	1.3	.9	-.9	-2.5	-.4	2.4	.6
	T	1.8	-1.2	1.1	1.1	.8	-1.8		-.3	2.3	.5

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TABLE 5-I 3 A NORMAL GROUP'S VIEW OF OBSERVATIONS OF TEACHERS

WHO RANKED:
% of All Respondents

DEPARTMENT HEAD
164

ABOUT WHOM:	ADMINISTRATORS	DEPARTMENT HEAD	TEACHERS
Average Consensus	.60	.27	.29
Average Intensity	1.60	1.87	1.84
Average Tendency	.36	-.62	-.76
KEY: Tolerable Behavior	aaaaaaa	@@@@@@@	ttttttt
Most approved Behavior	A	D	T

Possible Practice ——————→ Less 1 2 3 4 5 6 More

Reported Practice ——————→

Frequency of Observation	3	aaaaaaa@@@@@@A
	0	
	3	
Duration of Observation	2	aaaaaaa@@@@@@A
	0	BBBBBB
	0	
Leadup to Observation	1	aaaaaaa@@@@@@aaaaaaa
	0	BBBBBB
	0	TTTTTTTttttttt
Recording during Observation	2	aaaaaaaaaaaaa@@@@@@A
	0	BBBBBB
	0	
Deference in Feedback	4	@@@@@@aaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaa
	0	BBBBBBddddddd
	0	TTTTTTT
Follow-up after Observation	4	aaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaa@@@@@@A
	0	BBBBBB
	0	TTTTTTT
Preparation for Observation	2	aaaaaaa@@@@@@aaaaaaaaaaaaa
	0	dddddddddddBBBBBB
	0	TTTTTTTttttttttttttt
Link of Observation to Evaluation	2	@@@@@@aaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaa
	0	BBBBBB
	*	
Praise from Observation	3	aaaaaaaaaaaaa@@@@@@aaaaaaa
	3	BBBBBBddddddddddddd
	2	ttttttTTTTTTTttttttt
Initiative in regard to a teaching practice	3	@@@@@@aaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaa
	2	BBBBBBddddddd
	2	TTTTTTTttttttt

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TABLE 5-15 3 A NORMAL GROUP'S VIEWS OF OBSERVATIONS OF TEACHERS

WHO RESPONDED:
% of All Respondents

DEPARTMENT HEAD
163

ABOUT WHOM:	ADMINISTRATORS	DEPARTMENT HEAD	TEACHERS
Average Consensus (0,1)	.60	.67	.69
Average Intensity (0,3)	1.68	1.87	1.84
Average Tendency (-3,+3)	.36	-.62	-.76
KEY:	A	D	T

Possible Practice → / Reported Practice ↓		Less 1	2	3	4	More 5	6**	TEN	INT	CON
Frequency of Observation	A 2.0	-1.3	.9	1.7	-1.5	-1.9		-.5	2.3	.7
	D .0	-.3	-.4	-.5	-1.4	-1.6		-1.1	2.3	.3
	T 2.0	-.5	-.8	-1.1	-1.6	-1.9		-1.4	2.3	.4
Duration of Observation	A 1.0	-1.0	.3	1.4	-.3	-.9		-.2	2.1	.5
	D .0	-1.8	-.1	.0	-1.5	-2.1		-1.3	2.3	.5
	T .0	-2.1	-.9	-.6	-2.0	-2.4		-1.8	2.5	.7
Lead-up to Observation	A 1.0	-.4	.3	1.1	.5	-1.3		.2	2.1	.4
	D .0	-1.6	-.8	.5	-.5	-.8		-.5	2.0	.3
	T .0	-1.9	-1.1	.3	.1	-.8		-.6	2.3	.2
Recording during Observation	A 2.0	-.1	1.0	1.1	1.4	-1.4		.5	1.7	.7
	D .0	-1.5	-.3	-.1	.3	-1.8		-.6	1.9	.4
	T .0	-1.4	-.5	-.4	-.1	-1.5		-.7	1.6	.3
**Reference in Feedback	A 4.0	-.5	-.4	1.5	1.4	1.5	.0	.5	1.9	.7
	D .0	-1.6	-1.1	-.1	.5	.5	-.9	-.5	2.4	.4
	T .0	-1.4	-1.1	-.6	-.1	.1	-.8	-.8	2.2	.3
Follow-up after Observation	A 4.0	-1.9	1.3	1.3	1.1	1.9		1.0	2.3	1.0
	D .0	-1.8	.3	-.3	-.4	-.3		-.3	2.4	.3
	T .0	-2.0	.1	-.5	-.6	-.5		-.5	2.2	.4
Preparation for Observation	A 2.0	-2.4	1.1	1.6	1.0	1.5		.9	2.2	.9
	D .0	-2.5	-.4	.1	.1	.4		-.2	2.4	.4
	T .0	-2.5	-.2	.4	.3	.4		-.1	2.4	.3
Link of Observation to Evaluation	A 2.0	-1.9	1.8	1.3	.4	1.4		.6	2.2	.8
	D .0	-2.0	.3	-.5	-1.3	-.8		-.9	2.3	.5
Praise from Observation	A 2.5	-2.5	2.3	2.0	2.5	.0		1.2	2.0	.9
	D 2.5	-2.4	1.3	1.1	.6	-.6		.3	1.0	.4
	T 2.0	-2.3	1.1	1.3	.8	-.8		.2	1.0	.3
**Initiative in regard to a teaching practice	A 2.5	-2.3	1.8	1.6	1.4	.6	-1.4	.4	2.2	.8
	D 1.5	-2.0	.9	.4	-.1	-1.4	-2.1	-.7	2.5	.5
	T 2.0	-2.3	.1	.1	-1.1	-1.6		-.8	2.5	.5

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TABLE 2-1 2 A NOMINAL GROUP'S VIEWS OF OBSERVATIONS OF TEACHERS

WHO RESPONDED: ADMINISTRATORS
% of All Respondents 66

ABOUT WHOM:	ADMINISTRATORS	DEPARTMENT HEAD	TEACHERS
Average Consensus	.67	.57	.43
Average Intensity	2.11	2.19	2.13
Average Tendency	.47	.25	.25
KEY: Tolerable Behavior	aaaaaaaa	dddddddd	tttttttt
Most approved Behavior	A	D	T

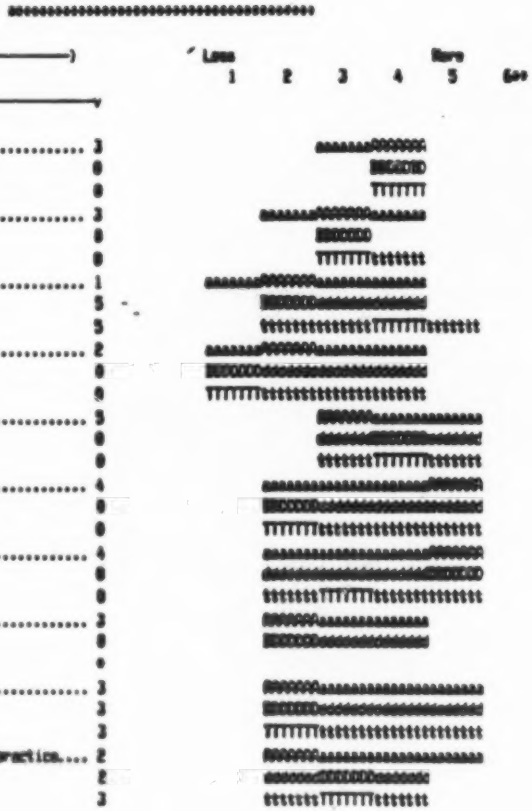

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TABLE 2-15 2 A NORMAL GROUP'S VIEWS OF OBSERVATIONS OF TEACHERS

WHO ANSWERED: ADMINISTRATORS
% of All Respondents 64

ABOUT WHOM:	ADMINISTRATORS	DEPARTMENT HEAD	TEACHERS
Average Consensus (0,1)	.67	.57	.43
Average Intensity (0,3)	2.11	2.19	2.13
Average Tendency (-3,+3)	.47	.25	.25
KEY:	A	D	T

Possible Practice ——————→ / Reported Practice ——————↓

		Less 1	2	3	4	More 5	6++	TEN	INT	CON
Frequency of Observation	A 3.0	-3.0	-1.7	.7	2.0	-.7		-.6	2.3	.7
	D .0	-1.7	-1.0	-.3	.7	-3.0		-1.2	2.7	.3
	T .0	-1.7	-1.0	-.7	1.0	-1.7		-1.0	2.6	.2
Duration of Observation	A 2.5	-2.0	.3	2.3	.0	-2.3		-.3	2.3	.7
	D .0	-2.3	-1.3	2.3	-.3	-3.0		-1.1	2.6	.6
	T .0	-2.3	-1.3	2.7	.0	-3.0		-1.0	2.8	.6
Lead-up to Observation	A 1.0	1.3	2.7	.7	1.0	-3.0		.6	2.4	.7
	D 5.0	-.3	2.7	2.0	1.3	-2.0		.7	2.3	.6
	T 5.0	-1.7	1.0	.7	2.0	.7		.3	2.7	.1
Recording during Observation	A 2.0	1.0	1.3	1.3	.3	-1.3		.6	1.6	.4
	D .0	1.7	1.3	1.3	.3	-1.3		.6	1.8	.4
	T .0	1.7	1.3	1.3	.3	-1.3		.6	1.7	.4
++Deference in Feedback	A 4.5	-3.0	-1.7	2.3	2.3	1.7	-3.0	-.2	2.6	.9
	D .0	-3.0	-2.0	2.0	2.3	.7	-2.3	-.5	2.7	.7
	T .0	-3.0	-2.7	1.3	2.0	.7	-2.3	-.8	2.7	.6
Follow-up after Observation	A 3.5	-3.0	2.7	2.0	2.3	3.0		1.5	2.9	1.0
	D .0	-2.3	2.7	1.3	1.7	1.7		1.0	2.7	.6
	T .0	-1.7	2.7	1.3	1.0	1.0		.8	2.3	.5
Preparation for Observation	A 4.0	-1.3	1.7	2.0	1.7	2.7		1.5	2.2	.7
	D .0	-1.3	1.7	2.0	1.7	2.7		1.3	2.2	.6
	T .0	-1.3	1.7	2.0	1.7	1.7		1.1	2.0	.6
Link of Observation to Evaluation	A 2.5	-3.0	2.0	1.3	.7	-.3		.2	2.3	.6
	D .0	-3.0	2.3	1.3	.3	-2.3		-.4	2.5	.8
Praise from Observation	A 2.5	-3.0	3.0	2.0	3.0	2.0		1.6	3.0	1.0
	D 3.0	-3.0	3.0	2.7	2.7	1.7		1.4	3.0	1.0
	T 3.0	-3.0	2.7	2.7	.7	1.0		.8	2.7	.6
++Initiative in regard to a teaching practice	A 2.0	-3.0	2.3	2.3	2.3	.3	-3.0	.6	2.5	.8
	D 2.0	-3.0	2.3	3.0	1.7	-1.7	-3.3	.1	2.7	.7
	T 3.0	-3.0	2.0	3.0	1.7	-.3		.6	2.6	.7

TABLE 5-4 GROUP CHARACTERISTICS AND VIEWS

AND RANKED:	ADMINISTRATORS	DEPARTMENT HEAD	TEACHERS
Average Age	45.00	41.25	46.67
Female	33.33	38.00	32.63
American Native, Indian	.00	.00	5.25
Asian-American	.00	.00	.00
Black, Negro	.00	12.50	.00
Mexican-American, Hispanic	66.67	12.50	7.89
White	33.33	75.00	86.84
Who Are Teachers	.00	.00	100.00
Who Are Dept. Heads	.00	100.00	.00
Average Years in Position	6.00	14.63	10.89
Average Years in This School	4.33	9.75	8.67
Average Activities Scale Score (0 = least active, 15 = most active	13.00	10.75	10.16
Who Spend Discretionary Time:			
In a faculty lounge	33.33	37.50	73.68
In a faculty lunchroom	.00	25.00	2.63
In a preparation room	.00	37.50	28.00
In the department office	.00	25.00	86.32
In the school office	66.67	.00	10.53
In an unused classroom	.00	38.00	63.16
In the schools hallways	100.00	12.50	2.63
In the school library	66.67	12.50	21.05
In other places	33.33	25.00	7.89
Average Assessment of Observation of Teachers (7 = least favorable, 28 = most favorable)	28.33	22.75	21.92
Average Assessment of Evaluation of Teachers (4 = least favorable, 28 = most favorable)	15.67	13.25	12.92

TABLE 3-C: RESPONDENTS' ASSESSMENTS OF OBSERVATION

Item range: 1=strongly disagree, 2=disagree, 3=not sure, 4=agree, 5=strongly agree.

ASSESSMENTS OF OBSERVATION PRACTICES	Admins	D.Heads	Teachers
1. In my school, feedback on teaching is concrete, specific.	4.0	2.5	2.9
2. In my school, feedback on teaching can be used to improve teaching.	3.8	2.9	3.1
3. In my school, teachers ignore feedback on their teaching.	2.8	2.8	2.9
4. When teachers use the feedback they receive, their teaching improves and students do better.	3.5	3.4	3.2
5. Being observed and receiving feedback is a comfortable and welcome experience for teachers in this school.	3.8	2.6	2.9
6. In this school, observation of teaching is an empty, useless ritual.	2.0	3.2	3.0
7. In this school, observation of teachers is a valuable professional tool.	3.8	2.2	2.7
Mean scale score (scale range = 7-35): (items 3 and 6 reversed for scale score.)	26.1	19.6	20.9

ASSESSMENTS OF THOSE WHO OBSERVE TEACHERS	Admins	D.Heads	Teachers
1. Those who observe teachers in this school strive to help teachers improve their teaching.	4.3	3.1	3.1
2. Those who observe teachers in this school strive to provide fair and valid evaluations of teachers.	4.5	3.5	3.6
3. Those who observe teachers in this school make their observation criteria clear.	4.0	2.5	3.2
4. Those who observe teachers in this school use fair, understandable standards for evaluating teaching.	4.8	3.2	3.6
Mean scale score (scale range = 4-20)	17.5	12.4	13.4

TABLE 3-I 4 A NOMINAL GROUP'S VIEWS OF OBSERVATIONS OF TEACHERS

WHO RANKED: TEACHERS
% of All Respondents 72%

RESULT WHEN:	ADMINISTRATORS	DEPARTMENT HEAD	TEACHERS
Average Consensus	.43	.85	.27
Average Intensity	1.72	1.83	1.83
Average Tendency	.28	-.45	-.78
KEY: Tolerable Behavior	aaaaaaaa	dddddddd	tttttttt
Most approved Behavior	A	D	T

Possible Practice ——————————)
Reported Practice ——————————v

		Less 1	2	3	4	More 5	6++
Frequency of Observation	1		AAAAAAAaaaaaaa				
	1						
	1						
Duration of Observation	2		AAACAAA				
	1						
	1						
Lead-up to Observation	2		AAAAAAAaaaaaaaaaaaaaa				
	2						
	2						
Recording during Observation	2		aaaaaaaAAAAAAAaaaaaaa				
	2		aaaaaaaCCCCCCCaaaaaaa				
	2						
++Deference in Feedback	4		aaaaaaaaaaaaaaAAAAAAAaaaaaaa				
	3		aaaaaaaCCCCCCCaaaaaaa				
	4						
Follow-up after Observation	3		aaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaAAAAAAA				
	2		BBBBBBBaaaaaaa				
	2						
Preparation for Observation	2		aaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaAAAAAAA				
	2		aaaaaaa	BBBBBBB			
	1		ttttttt	TTTTTTT			
Link of Observation to Evaluation	2		AAAAAAAaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaa				
	2		BBBBBBB				
	0						
Praise from Observation	3		aaaaaaaaaaaaaaAAAAAAA				
	2		BBBBBBBaaaaaaaaaaaaaa				
	2		TTTTTTTtttttttttttttt				
++Initiative in regard to a teaching practice	2		AAAAAAAaaaaaaaaaaaaa				
	2		aaaaaaaCCCCCCCaaaaaaa				
	3		ttttttTTTTTTT				

TABLE 3-IS 4 A NOMINAL GROUP'S VIEWS OF OBSERVATIONS OF TEACHERS

WHO ANSWERED:	TEACHERS
% of All Assessments	72%

ABOUT WHOM:	ADMINISTRATORS	DEPARTMENT HEAD	TEACHERS
Average Consensus (0,1)	.43	.85	.27
Average Intensity (0,3)	1.72	1.83	1.83
Average Tendency (-2,+3)	.89	-.45	-.78
KEY:	A	D	T

Possible Practice → Less ... More

Reported Practice ↓

		1	2	3	4	5	6**	TEN	INT	CON
Frequency of Observation	A 1.4	-.2	.6	.8	-1.3	-1.8		-.6	2.0	.5
	D 1.4	-.5	-.5	-.8	-1.5	-1.6		-1.4	2.3	.5
	T 1.1	-.5	-.5	-.9	-1.4	-1.6		-1.2	2.1	.4
Duration of Observation	A 1.6	-.8	-.1	.5	-.1	-1.0		-.3	2.0	.4
	D 1.2	-.9	-.4	-.2	-1.0	-1.3		-1.1	2.2	.4
	T 1.2	-1.0	-.8	-.8	-1.1	-1.3		-1.2	2.2	.4
Leadup to Observation	A 1.6	-.2	1.2	1.1	.6	-.8		.4	1.9	.4
	D 1.7	-.8	-.3	-.2	-.4	-1.1		-.8	2.1	.3
	T 2.0	-1.2	-.8	-.6	-.3	-.7		-.9	2.1	.3
Recording during Observation	A 1.9	-.3	1.0	1.0	1.0	-1.2		.4	1.8	.6
	D 1.7	-.8	.0	.2	.1	-1.4		-.6	2.1	.3
	T 1.8	-.9	-.2	-.2	-.3	-1.5		-.8	2.1	.3
**Deference in Feedback	A 4.0	-.8	.8	1.8	1.7	1.3	-1.3	.4	2.2	.5
	D 3.4	-1.3	-.8	.8	.2	.2	-1.4	-.7	2.5	.3
	T 3.5	-1.8	-1.2	-.6	-.5	-.5	-1.6	-1.3	2.6	.4
Follow-up after Observation	A 3.0	-1.7	.7	1.1	1.5	1.6		.7	2.3	.6
	D 2.4	-1.3	-.1	.0	.2	.1		-.4	2.4	.3
	T 2.8	-1.2	-.4	-.7	-.5	-.8		-1.0	2.4	.3
Preparation for Observation	A 1.9	-1.6	.5	1.1	.3	1.7		.5	2.0	.5
	D 2.0	-1.5	-.1	.3	-.2	.6		-.4	2.2	.3
	T 1.8	-1.6	-.2	.1	-.4	.1		-.5	2.2	.2
Link of Observation to Evaluation	A 2.5	-2.0	1.0	1.0	.8	1.0		.5	2.3	.6
	D 2.3	-1.5	.2	-.1	-.6	-.5		-.7	2.5	.3
Praise from Observation	A 2.7	-1.9	2.0	1.8	2.2	-.8		.8	2.6	.7
	D 2.0	-1.4	1.1	1.0	.8	-1.4		-.2	2.7	.3
	T 2.0	-1.3	1.0	.5	.2	-1.5		-.4	2.5	.3
**Initiative in regard to a teaching practice	A 2.0	-1.5	1.5	1.4	.6	-.7	-2.1	-.2	2.2	.6
	D 1.9	-1.4	.8	1.0	.2	-.9	-2.0	-.6	2.3	.4
	T 2.6	-1.4	.3	.6	-.6	-2.0		-.8	2.3	.4

TABLE 3-I 3 A NOMINAL GROUP'S VIEWS OF OBSERVATIONS OF TEACHERS

WHO ANSWERED: DEPARTMENT HEAD
% of All Respondents 12%

ABOUT WHEN:	ADMINISTRATORS	DEPARTMENT HEAD	TEACHERS
Average Consensus	.44	.31	.29
Average Intensity	1.00	2.31	1.99
Average Tendency	.23	-1.08	-.90
KEY: Tolerable Behavior	aaaaaaaa	dddddddd	tttttttt
Most approved Behavior	A	D	T

Possible Practice ——————————)
Reported Practice ——————————v

		Less 1	2	3	4	More 5	6**
Frequency of Observation	1		AAAAAAaaaaaaa				
	1						
	1						
Duration of Observation	2			aaaaaaaDDDDDD			
	1						
	1						
Lead-up to Observation	1		AAAAAAaaaaaaaaaaaaa				
	0						
	0		TTTTTTT				
Recording during Observation	1		aaaaaaaTAAAAAAaaaaaaaaaaaa				
	0						
	0		TTTTTTTtttttttt				
**Deference in Feedback	5		aaaaaaaaaaaaaaAAAAAAaaaaaaa				
	6						
	6						
Follow-up after Observation	3		aaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaDDDDDD				
	1						
	1						
Preparation for Observation	1		aaaaaaaaaaaaaa			AAAAAA	
	1					BBBBBB	
	1						
Link of Observation to Evaluation	2		aaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaDDDDDD				
	1			BBBBBB			
	0						
Praise from Observation	2		aaaaaaaaaaaaaaDDDDDD				
	1			BBBBBBcccccc			
	1		ttttttTTTTTT				
**Initiative in regard to a teaching practice	2		AAAAAAaaaaaaaaaaaaa				
	2			BBBBBB			
	2			TTTTTT			

TABLE 3-16 3 A NOMINAL GROUP'S VIEWS OF OBSERVATIONS OF TEACHERS

WHO RANKED: DEPARTMENT HEAD
% of All Respondents 12%

ABOUT WHOM:	ADMINISTRATORS	DEPARTMENT HEAD	TEACHERS
Average Consensus (0,1)	.44	.31	.29
Average Intensity (0,3)	1.80	2.31	1.99
Average Tendency (-3,+3)	.23	-1.80	-.50
KEY:	A	D	T

Possible Practice → / Reported Practice ↓		Less 1	2	3	4	More 5	6++	TEN	INT	CON
Frequency of Observation	A 1.3	-.7	1.0	.6	-.4	-1.4		-.2	2.0	.5
	D 1.0	-1.4	-1.5	-1.5	-2.4	-2.5		-2.0	2.6	.6
	T 1.0	-.5	-.4	-.7	-1.6	-1.7		-1.1	1.8	.5
Duration of Observation	A 1.6	-1.5	-.3	.5	.7	-.3		-.2	2.0	.4
	D 1.0	-1.5	-.9	-.4	-1.5	-1.9		-1.4	2.6	.4
	T 1.0	-1.0	-.6	-.1	-1.1	-1.7		-1.1	2.1	.3
Lead-up to Observation	A 1.0	-.2	1.4	.4	.2	-1.3		.2	1.7	.4
	D .0	-1.5	-.2	-.8	-1.0	-2.0		-1.1	2.5	.3
	T .0	-1.5	.2	-.3	-.5	-1.9		-.9	2.3	.3
Recording during Observation	A 1.3	.2	1.5	1.1	1.2	-1.3		.7	1.7	.7
	D .0	-1.4	-.2	-.1	-.6	-2.1		-1.0	2.4	.3
	T .0	-.8	.2	.0	-.3	-2.1		-.7	2.1	.3
**Deference in Feedback	A 5.0	-.6	.1	1.9	2.0	1.1	-1.0	.5	2.3	.5
	D 6.0	-1.0	-1.1	-.6	-.2	-.4	-2.3	-1.2	2.7	.3
	T 6.0	-2.1	-1.1	-.8	-.3	-.5	-2.0	-1.3	2.7	.3
Follow-up after Observation	A 2.5	-1.4	.9	.4	.8	1.1		.5	2.2	.4
	D 1.0	-1.0	-1.2	-.8	-.4	-1.0		-1.1	2.6	.3
	T 1.0	-1.0	-1.0	-1.1	-.6	-1.3		-1.2	2.5	.3
Preparation for Observation	A 1.3	-1.4	1.2	1.4	-.4	1.0		.7	1.9	.6
	D 1.0	-1.6	-.5	-.5	-1.5	.1		-.9	2.5	.3
	T 1.0	-1.7	-.2	-.3	-1.3	-.4		-.9	2.2	.3
Link of Observation to Evaluation	A 2.0	-2.2	1.2	1.4	1.3	1.7		.7	2.2	.7
	D 1.0	-2.4	-.7	.3	-.2	-.2		-.7	2.8	.3
Praise from Observation	A 2.0	-2.4	1.9	1.7	2.0	-1.5		.6	2.7	.7
	D 1.0	-2.6	-.2	.2	.1	-2.1		-1.0	3.1	.3
	T 1.0	-1.8	.1	.2	-.3	-2.0		-.8	2.5	.3
**Initiative in regard to a teaching practice	A 1.0	-1.8	1.6	1.2	.7	-1.3	-2.0	-.3	2.3	.6
	D 2.0	-2.3	-.5	.0	-1.0	-1.6	-2.3	-1.3	2.8	.4
	T 2.0	-1.9	-.4	.3	-.3	-2.4		-1.0	2.6	.4

TABLE 3-1 2 A NOMINAL GROUP'S VIEWS OF OBSERVATIONS OF TEACHERS

WHO ANSWERED: ADMINISTRATORS
% of All Respondents 46

ABOUT WHEN:	ADMINISTRATORS	DEPARTMENT HEAD	TEACHERS
Average Consensus	.55	.80	.19
Average Intensity	1.88	1.39	1.36
Average Tendency	.44	-.26	-.41
KEY: Tolerable Behavior	aaaaaaaa	dddddddd	tttttttt
Most approved Behavior	A	D	T

Possible Practice ——————→ Less 1 2 3 4 5 More

Reported Practice ——————→

Frequency of Observation	2	aaaaaaaBBBBBB
	2	BBBBBB
	2	TTTTTTTtttttt
Duration of Observation	3	BBBBBBaaaaaaaaaaaaaa
	3	BBBBBBdddddddd
	2	TTTTTTT
Leadup to Observation	2	aaaaaaaBBBBBBaaaaaaaaaaaaaa
	3	ddddddddddddddBBBBBB
	3	TTTTTTT
Recording during Observation	2	aaaaaaaBBBBBBaaaaaaaaaaaaaa
	3	BBBBBB dddddd
	1	
ooReference in Feedback	2	aaaaaaaaaaaaaaBBBBBBaaaaaaaaaaaaaa
	3	BBBBBB
	5	
Follow-up after Observation	4	aaaaaaaaaaaaaaBBBBBBaaaaaaa
	5	BBBBBB ddddddddddddd
	3	TTTTTTTtttttttttttttt
Preparation for Observation	2	aaaaaaaaaaaaaaBBBBBBaaaaaaaaaaaaaa
	4	BBBBBB dddddd
	3	TTTTTTT tttttttt
Link of Observation to Evaluation	4	BBBBBBaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaa
	3	BBBBBB dddddd
	0	
Praise from Observation	4	aaaaaaaaaaaaaaBBBBBBaaaaaaa
	3	ddddddBBBBBBddddddd
	3	TTTTTTTtttttttttttttt
ooInitiative in regard to a teaching practice	3	aaaaaaaaaaaaaaBBBBBB
	3	ddddddBBBBBBddddddd
	4	ttttttTTTTTTT

TABLE 3-IS 2 A NOMINAL GROUP'S VIEWS OF OBSERVATIONS OF TEACHERS

WHO ANSWERED: ADMINISTRATORS
% of All Respondents 46

ABOUT WHOM:	ADMINISTRATORS	DEPARTMENT HEAD	TEACHERS
Average Consensus (0,1)	.55	.60	.19
Average Intensity (0,3)	1.80	1.39	1.36
Average Tendency (-3,+3)	.44	-.36	-.41
KEY:	A	D	T

Possible Practice → / Reported Practice ↓		Less 1	2	3	4	5	More 6++	TEN	INT	CON
Frequency of Observation	A	2.3	-.5	1.0	1.3	-.5	-1.0		.0	1.6	.6
	D	2.0	-.3	.3	-.8	-1.0	-1.3		-.8	1.9	.2
	T	2.0	-.3	.8	.0	-.8	-.8		-.5	1.7	.2
Duration of Observation	A	3.3	-1.3	-1.0	1.5	1.5	.5		.2	1.6	.7
	D	3.0	-1.5	-1.3	.0	.0	-.3		-.8	1.8	.3
	T	2.0	-1.3	-.8	.3	-.3	-.8		-.7	1.7	.3
Leadup to Observation	A	2.8	.0	1.3	.8	.3	-1.3		.4	1.3	.6
	D	2.5	-1.0	-.3	.0	.0	.5		-.3	1.4	.2
	T	2.5	-1.3	-.5	-.3	-.8	.0		-.5	1.5	.3
Recording during Observation	A	2.3	.0	1.5	1.0	1.3	-1.5		.7	1.5	.8
	D	2.5	-.5	.0	-.3	.0	-1.5		-.5	1.7	.2
	T	1.0	-.3	-.5	-.5	-.5	-1.3		-.7	1.4	.1
oReference in Feedback	A	2.3	.5	.5	1.3	1.3	1.3	-1.3	.6	1.6	.4
	D	3.0	-.8	-.5	.0	-.8	-.3	-1.3	-.7	1.6	.2
	T	3.0	-.3	-.8	-.5	-.8	-.8	-1.5	-.9	1.7	.3
Follow-up after Observation	A	3.7	-1.5	1.3	.7	1.5	1.5		.8	1.6	.8
	D	4.5	-1.5	1.0	-.3	.0	.0		-.2	1.7	.3
	T	3.0	-1.5	1.3	.0	.0	-.3		-.2	1.8	.3
Preparation for Observation	A	2.3	.0	.0	1.5	.3	1.5		.7	1.5	.6
	D	4.0	-.8	-.3	.0	-1.0	.0		-.4	1.7	.1
	T	2.5	-.8	-.3	.0	-1.0	.0		-.5	1.7	.1
Link of Observation to Evaluation	A	2.5	-1.5	1.5	.0	.0	1.5		.4	1.7	.6
	D	3.0	-1.5	.0	-.3	.0	-.3		-.5	1.8	.2
Praise from Observation	A	2.5	-1.3	1.0	1.0	2.0	.5		1.1	2.0	.8
	D	3.0	-1.8	.3	.5	.3	-.5		-.3	2.2	.1
	T	2.5	-1.8	.5	.3	.0	-.5		-.3	2.1	.1
oInitiative in regard to a teaching practice	A	3.3	-1.8	1.0	1.5	1.8	-.5	-1.8	.0	1.8	.7
	D	3.3	-1.5	1.3	1.5	1.5	-1.0	-2.0	-.1	1.8	.6
	T	2.5	-1.5	1.3	1.5	-.5	-1.5		-.3	1.8	.6

TABLE 3-H GROUP CHARACTERISTICS AND VIEWS

WHO RESPONDED:	ADMINISTRATORS	DEPARTMENT HEAD	TEACHERS
Average Age	48.50	41.45	47.32
%Female	25.00	54.55	43.28
%American Native, Indian	.00	.00	2.83
%Asian-American	.00	.00	.00
%Black, Negro	25.00	9.09	6.06
%Mexican-American, Hispanic	.00	.00	4.55
%White	75.00	90.91	84.85
%Who Are Teachers	.00	.00	100.00
%Who Are Dept. Heads	.00	100.00	.00
Average Years in Position	10.25	20.73	20.25
Average Years in This School	13.25	18.64	18.27
Average Activities Scale Score (5 = least active, 15 = most active	12.75	10.82	10.31
%Who Spend Discretionary Time:			
In a faculty lounge	50.00	54.55	53.73
In a faculty lunchroom	.00	18.18	14.93
In a preparation room	.00	36.36	49.25
In the department office	.00	54.55	44.78
In the school office	100.00	27.27	14.93
In an unused classroom	.00	36.36	28.81
In the schools hallways	75.00	.00	2.99
In the school library	.00	9.09	11.94
In other places	25.00	36.36	10.10
Average Assessment of Observation of Teachers (7 = least favorable, 35 = most favorable)	26.00	19.55	28.00
Average Assessment of Evaluation of Teachers (4 = least favorable, 28 = most favorable)	17.50	12.36	13.42

TABLE 4-C: RESPONDENTS' ASSESSMENTS OF OBSERVATION

Item range: 1=strongly disagree, 2=disagree, 3=not sure, 4=agree, 5=strongly agree.

ASSESSMENTS OF OBSERVATION PRACTICES	Admins	D.Heads	Teachers
1. In my school, feedback on teaching is concrete, specific.	5.0	4.0	4.3
2. In my school, feedback on teaching can be used to improve teaching.	5.0	4.1	4.5
3. In my school, teachers ignore feedback on their teaching.	1.0	2.0	1.8
4. When teachers use the feedback they receive, their teaching improves and students do better.	5.0	4.0	4.1
5. Being observed and receiving feedback is a comfortable and welcome experience for teachers in this school.	4.5	2.9	3.5
6. In this school, observation of teaching is an empty, useless ritual.	1.0	1.1	1.4
7. In this school, observation of teachers is a valuable professional tool.	5.0	4.3	4.4
Mean scale score (scale range = 7-35): (Items 3 and 6 reversed for scale score.)	34.5	28.2	29.6

ASSESSMENTS OF THOSE WHO OBSERVE TEACHERS	Admins	D.Heads	Teachers
1. Those who observe teachers in this school strive to help teachers improve their teaching.	4.5	4.9	4.5
2. Those who observe teachers in this school strive to provide fair and valid evaluations of teachers.	5.0	4.0	4.3
3. Those who observe teachers in this school make their observation criteria clear.	5.0	4.0	4.2
4. Those who observe teachers in this school use fair, understandable standards for evaluating teaching.	5.0	4.1	4.1
Mean scale score (scale range = 4-20)	19.5	17.0	17.0

TABLE 4-1 4 A NOMINAL GROUP'S VIEWS OF OBSERVATIONS OF TEACHERS

NOC RANKED:		TEACHERS
% of All Respondents		78%
ABOUT WHOM:	ADMINISTRATORS	DEPARTMENT HEAD	TEACHERS
Average Consensus	.57	.48	.44
Average Intensity	2.89	1.86	1.75
Average Tendency	.34	.08	.18
KEY: Tolerable Behavior	aaaaaaa	ddddddd	ttttttt
Most approved Behavior	A	D	T

Possible Practice ——————→ Less 1 2 3 4 5 More

Reported Practice ——————↓

Frequency of Observation	3	
	2	
	2	
Duration of Observation	5	
	2	
	3	
Lead-up to Observation	3	
	3	
	3	
Recording during Observation	5	
	2	
	3	
◇◇Reference in Feedback	3	
	4	
	4	
Follow-up after Observation	5	
	2	
	3	
Preparation for Observation	3	
	2	
	3	
Link of Observation to Evaluation	4	
	2	
	0	
Praise from Observation	3	
	3	
	2	
◇◇Initiative in regard to a teaching practice	4	
	3	
	2	

TABLE 4-IS 4 A NOMINAL GROUP'S VIEWS OF OBSERVATIONS OF TEACHERS

WHO OBSERVED: TEACHERS
% of All Respondents 70%

ABOUT WHOM:	ADMINISTRATORS	DEPARTMENT HEAD	TEACHERS
Average Consensus (0,1)	.57	.48	.44
Average Intensity (0,3)	2.00	1.86	1.75
Average Tendency (-3,+3)	.34	.00	.18
KEY:	A	D	T

Possible Practice / Reported Practice		Less 1	2	3	4	More 5	6+	TEn	INT	CEn
Frequency of Observation	A 2.8	-1.7	.0	.5	-.2	-1.0		-.6	2.3	.4
	D 1.6	-.5	.1	-.1	-1.1	-1.4		-.7	2.1	.4
	T 2.1	.0	.7	.5	-.5	-.0		.1	1.0	.4
Duration of Observation	A 4.0	-2.6	-1.5	.3	1.3	2.0		-.1	2.6	.0
	D 2.2	-2.3	-.0	.1	.7	.5		-.4	2.3	.5
	T 3.2	-1.0	-.9	.6	1.2	.9		.1	2.2	.6
Leadup to Observation	A 2.5	-1.1	1.6	2.2	.9	-1.5		.5	2.4	.7
	D 2.5	-1.6	.2	1.3	.5	-.0		.0	2.3	.4
	T 3.0	-1.9	.1	1.4	1.0	-.3		.2	2.2	.5
Recording during Observation	A 4.0	-1.9	-.4	.9	1.0	1.0		.7	2.4	.7
	D 2.3	-1.3	-.3	.6	.7	.1		.2	1.9	.5
	T 3.0	-.3	.4	1.0	.7	.0		.6	1.7	.5
oeReference in Feedback	A 3.1	-1.4	.2	1.9	1.7	.0	-2.6	.1	2.3	.7
	D 4.3	-1.9	-.0	1.1	.9	.3	-1.7	-.4	2.2	.6
	T 4.0	-2.3	-1.1	.9	1.1	1.0	-1.3	-.3	2.2	.6
Follow-up after Observation	A 4.5	-2.2	1.4	.5	1.3	1.7		.0	2.4	.0
	D 2.3	-2.2	1.1	.3	1.0	.0		.4	2.3	.5
	T 2.7	-1.6	1.2	.2	.7	.3		.3	1.9	.5
Preparation for Observation	A 3.5	-2.3	.9	1.9	1.5	2.5		1.1	2.6	.9
	D 2.3	-2.0	.7	1.5	1.2	1.0		.9	2.4	.7
	T 3.3	-1.6	.9	1.3	1.3	1.9		1.1	2.3	.7
Link of Observation to Evaluation	A 3.6	-2.3	1.2	.7	.3	.9		.3	2.3	.6
	D 2.0	-1.5	.0	.4	-.2	.2		.0	2.3	.4
Praise from Observation	A 3.0	-2.4	2.4	1.9	2.4	.2		1.2	2.0	.9
	D 2.7	-2.1	1.0	1.6	1.7	-.1		.0	2.7	.7
	T 2.3	-1.0	2.0	1.6	1.5	-.2		.0	2.5	.7
oeInitiative in regard to a teaching practice	A 4.2	-2.5	1.7	2.2	2.1	.0	-1.4	.7	2.7	.0
	D 2.5	-2.2	1.5	2.0	1.4	.0	-2.0	.2	2.6	.7
	T 2.4	-1.9	1.7	1.9	.2	-1.7		.2	2.6	.7

TABLE 4-I 3 [illegible]

WHO ANSWERED: [illegible] DEPARTMENT HEAD
% of All Respondents [illegible]

ABOUT WHOM:	ADMINISTRATORS	DEPARTMENT HEAD	TEACHERS
Average Consensus	.78	.54	.58
Average Intensity	1.89	1.77	1.59
Average Tendency	.57	.85	.49
KEY: Tolerable Behavior	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]
Most approved Behavior	A	D	T

[illegible]

Possible Practice ——————)
Reported Practice ——————v

Less 1 2 3 4 More 5 6+

Frequency of Observation..... 3
1
2

Duration of Observation..... 4
0
4

Lead-up to Observation..... 2
0
4

Recording during Observation..... 5
0
4

[illegible]Reference in Feedback..... 3
0
3

Follow-up after Observation..... 4
0
4

Preparation for Observation..... 2
4
4

Link of Observation to Evaluation..... 3
0
0

Praise from Observation..... 4
0
3

[illegible]Initiative in regard to a teaching practice.... 4
2
3

TABLE 4-16 3 A NORMAL GROUP'S VIEWS OF OBSERVATIONS OF TEACHERS

WHO RANKED:
% of All Respondents

DEPARTMENT HEAD
166

ABOUT WHOM:	ADMINISTRATORS	DEPARTMENT HEAD	TEACHERS
Average Consensus (0,1)	.78	.54	.58
Average Intensity (0,3)	1.89	1.77	1.59
Average Tendency (-3,+3)	.57	.85	.49
KEY:	A	D	T

Possible Practice → / Reported Practice ↓		Less 1	2	3	4	More 5	6**	TEN	INT	CON
Frequency of Observation	A	2.6	-1.6	.7	1.0	-.9	-1.4		-.5	2.4	.6
	D	1.0	-1.6	1.3	-.9	-1.4	-1.4		-.6	2.1	.6
	T	2.0	-.1	.7	.7	.1	-.7		.4	1.4	.5
Duration of Observation	A	4.3	-2.7	-2.0	.1	2.0	2.4		.0	2.6	1.0
	D	.0	-2.4	-1.1	.6	1.3	.3		-.2	2.5	.5
	T	3.7	-2.0	-1.1	1.3	1.9	1.4		.5	2.1	.9
Lead-up to Observation	A	2.3	-1.6	2.6	2.1	.6	-1.1		.7	2.4	.8
	D	.0	-1.6	1.3	1.1	.4	-.3		.6	2.4	.5
	T	1.7	-1.3	1.7	1.6	1.3	.4		.9	2.1	.8
Recording during Observation	A	4.8	-.7	1.1	1.6	2.3	1.1		1.3	2.0	1.0
	D	.0	-.7	.9	1.9	1.6	.0		1.1	1.9	.8
	T	2.5	-.6	.7	1.7	1.7	.1		1.2	1.9	.7
ce/Reference in Feedback	A	2.3	-.7	1.0	2.1	1.3	.4	-2.9	.1	2.4	.6
	D	.0	-1.4	-.9	1.6	1.3	.9	-1.9	-.1	2.1	.7
	T	1.3	-1.6	-.9	1.6	1.1	1.1	-1.9	-.1	2.1	.7
Follow-up after Observation	A	4.1	-1.9	1.4	1.0	2.3	2.1		1.3	2.4	1.1
	D	.0	-1.0	.9	1.0	.7	.4		.0	1.0	.6
	T	2.5	-.1	1.1	.4	.1	-.4		.5	1.0	.5
Preparation for Observation	A	2.4	-2.4	1.3	2.0	1.9	2.3		1.3	2.6	1.0
	D	4.0	-2.1	1.1	1.7	1.6	2.0		1.1	2.3	1.0
	T	3.8	-1.4	1.4	2.1	1.9	2.0		1.6	2.4	.9
Link of Observation to Evaluation	A	2.8	-1.6	1.1	.8	.1	2.0		.7	2.2	.8
	D	.0	-1.3	.9	.7	.0	1.0		.3	2.1	.5
Praise from Observation	A	3.7	-2.7	1.9	2.0	2.7	.6		1.3	2.9	1.0
	D	.0	-2.3	2.1	2.4	2.3	-.4		1.2	2.8	.7
	T	2.5	-1.7	2.1	2.1	1.6	-.3		1.1	2.5	.8
ce/initiative in regard to a teaching practice	A	4.1	-2.4	1.9	2.3	2.4	1.0	-.6	1.2	2.7	.9
	D	2.0	-2.3	2.0	2.4	2.0	.7	-1.6	.6	2.4	.8
	T	2.5	-2.0	2.0	2.6	1.3	-.6		.6	2.6	1.0

TABLE 4-1 2 A NOMINAL GROUP'S VIEWS OF OBSERVATIONS OF TEACHERS

WHO RESPONDED:
% of All Respondents

ADMINISTRATORS
3%

ABOUT WHOM:	ADMINISTRATORS	DEPARTMENT HEAD	TEACHERS
Average Consensus	.79	.68	.70
Average Intensity	2.58	2.22	2.25
Average Tendency	.88	.93	1.10
KEY: Tolerable Behavior	aaaaaaaa	dddddddd	tttttttt
Most approved Behavior	A	D	T

Possible Practice ——————————→)
Reported Practice ——————————→v

Less 1 2 3 4 5 6 More

Frequency of Observation	4	
	1	
	3	
Duration of Observation	5	
	0	
	5	
Lead-up to Observation	3	
	0	
	3	
Recording during Observation	5	
	0	
	4	
ee0eference in Feedback	3	
	0	
	4	
Follow-up after Observation	5	
	0	
	4	
Preparation for Observation	5	
	0	
	5	
Link of Observation to Evaluation	4	
	0	
	0	
Praise from Observation	4	
	0	
	0	
ee0nitiative in regard to a teaching practice	4	
	0	
	4	

TABLE 4-15 2 A NORMAL GROUP'S VIEWS OF OBSERVATIONS OF TEACHERS

GRID ANSWERED: ADMINISTRATORS
% of All Respondents 3%

ABOUT WHOM:	ADMINISTRATORS	DEPARTMENT HEAD	TEACHERS
Average Consensus (0,1)	.79	.68	.79
Average Intensity (0,3)	2.58	2.22	2.25
Average Tendency (-3,+3)	.88	.93	1.10
KEY:	A	D	T

oooooooooooooooooooooooooooooooooooooooooooooo

Possible Practice→ / Reported Practice↓		Less 1	2	3	4	More 5	6++	TEN	INT	CON
Frequency of Observation	A 4.0	-1.0	-2.5	-.5	2.5	2.5		-.3	2.8	.8
	D 1.0	-.5	.5	1.0	1.5	1.0		1.0	1.6	.9
	T 2.5	-.5	.5	1.0	2.0	.5		1.1	1.6	.8
Duration of Observation	A 5.0	-1.0	-1.0	.0	2.0	1.0		.2	2.4	1.0
	D .0	-1.0	-1.0	.0	2.0	1.0		.1	2.4	.9
	T 4.5	-1.0	.0	1.5	2.5	1.0		1.2	2.4	.7
Leadup to Observation	A 1.0	-2.0	1.0	1.0	2.0	-1.0		.7	1.0	1.0
	D .0	-.5	1.0	1.0	2.0	2.0		1.9	2.5	.9
	T 1.0	-1.0	-1.0	1.0	2.0	2.0		.8	1.0	.8
Recording during Observation	A 5.0	-1.0	-.5	1.0	2.0	2.0	-	1.2	2.1	.9
	D .0	.0	1.0	2.0	2.0	2.0		1.8	2.3	.9
	T 4.0	-1.0	2.0	1.0	2.0	2.0		2.1	2.9	.7
ooDeference in Feedback	A 1.0	-2.0	.0	2.5	.0	.0	-1.0	-.4	2.9	.1
	D .0	-2.0	-.5	1.0	.0	.0	-1.0	-.5	2.9	.2
	T 4.0	-2.0	-2.0	1.0	2.5	.0	-2.0	-.1	2.7	.6
Follow-up after Observation	A 5.0	-1.0	2.5	2.5	1.0	1.0		1.7	1.2	1.1
	D .0	-1.0	1.0	2.5	2.5	1.5		1.8	2.7	.8
	T 4.0	1.0	1.0	1.5	2.0	-1.0		1.3	2.2	.7
Preparation for Observation	A 4.5	-1.0	1.0	2.5	1.0	1.0		1.5	2.9	1.1
	D .0	-1.0	1.0	2.5	1.0	1.0		1.4	2.9	1.1
	T 4.5	-2.0	2.0	2.5	1.0	1.0		1.9	2.9	1.0
Link of Observation to Evaluation	A 4.0	-1.0	1.0	1.0	1.0	1.5		1.2	2.7	.9
	D .0	-1.0	1.0	1.0	2.0	-1.0		.4	2.6	.7
Praise from Observation	A 4.0	-1.0	1.0	1.0	1.0	1.0		2.0	1.5	1.1
	D .0	-1.0	1.0	1.0	1.0	2.0		1.7	1.2	1.0
	T .0	-1.0	1.0	1.0	1.5	2.0		1.4	2.9	.8
ooInitiative in regard to a teaching practice	A 1.5	-1.0	2.0	1.0	1.0	1.0	1.0	1.9	1.2	1.1
	D .0	-1.0	2.0	1.0	.0	-1.0	.0	.2	2.7	.4
	T 1.5	-1.0	2.0	1.0	1.0	-1.0		.8	2.8	1.0

TABLE 4-H GROUP CHARACTERISTICS AND VIEWS

AND ANSWERED:	ADMINISTRATORS	DEPARTMENT HEAD	TEACHERS
Average Age	44.00	33.14	35.86
%Female	50.00	42.86	54.84
%American Native, Indian	.00	.00	.00
%Asian-American	.00	.00	.00
%Black, Negro	.00	.00	.00
%Mexican-American, Hispanic	.00	.00	.00
%White	100.00	100.00	100.00
%Who Are Teachers	.00	.00	100.00
%Who Are Dept. Heads	.00	100.00	.00
Average Years in Position	7.00	6.71	8.67
Average Years in This School	13.00	5.43	6.65
Average Activities Scale Score (5 = least active, 15 = most active	15.00	12.29	11.17
%Who Spend Discretionary Time:			
In a faculty lounge	100.00	57.14	48.00
In a faculty lunchroom	.00	28.57	3.33
In a preparation room	50.00	71.43	50.00
In the department office	.00	28.57	16.67
In the school office	50.00	28.57	13.33
In an unused classroom	.00	57.14	76.67
In the schools hallways	100.00	.00	10.00
In the school library	.00	.00	10.00
In other places	.00	28.57	13.33
Average Assessment of Observation of Teachers (7 = least favorable, 35 = most favorable)	32.50	28.14	29.45
Average Assessment of Evaluation of Teachers (4 = least favorable, 20 = most favorable)	16.00	17.00	17.00

TABLE 5-C: RESPONDENTS' ASSESSMENTS OF OBSERVATION

Item range: 1=strongly disagree, 2=disagree, 3=not sure, 4=agree, 5=strongly agree.

ASSESSMENTS OF OBSERVATION PRACTICES	Admins	D.Heads	Teachers
1. In my school, feedback on teaching is concrete, specific.	4.3	4.1	4.2
2. In my school, feedback on teaching can be used to improve teaching.	5.0	4.4	4.3
3. In my school, teachers ignore feedback on their teaching.	2.7	2.4	2.2
4. When teachers use the feedback they receive, their teaching improves and students do better.	4.7	3.6	3.8
5. Being observed and receiving feedback is a comfortable and welcome experience for teachers in this school.	4.3	3.2	3.6
6. In this school, observation of teaching is an empty, useless ritual.	1.3	1.8	1.8
7. In this school, observation of teachers is a valuable professional tool.	5.0	3.9	4.0
Mean scale score (scale range = 7-35): (items 3 and 6 reversed for scale score.)	31.3	27.0	27.9

ASSESSMENTS OF THOSE WHO OBSERVE TEACHERS	Admins	D.Heads	Teachers
1. Those who observe teachers in this school strive to help teachers improve their teaching.	5.0	4.1	4.5
2. Those who observe teachers in this school strive to provide fair and valid evaluations of teachers.	5.0	4.0	4.4
3. Those who observe teachers in this school make their observation criteria clear.	4.3	3.9	4.3
4. Those who observe teachers in this school use fair, understandable standards for evaluating teaching.	4.7	4.0	4.4
Mean scale score (scale range = 4-20)	19.0	16.0	17.4

TABLE 5-I 4 A NOMINAL GROUP'S VIEWS OF OBSERVATIONS OF TEACHERS

GROUP RANKED:		TEACHERS
% of All Respondents		67%

ABOUT WHOM:	ADMINISTRATORS	DEPARTMENT HEAD	TEACHERS
Average Consensus	.61	.47	.48
Average Intensity	1.94	1.84	1.81
Average Tendency	.36	-.03	-.06
KEY: Tolerable Behavior	aaaaaaaa	dddddddd	tttttttt
Most approved Behavior	A	D	T

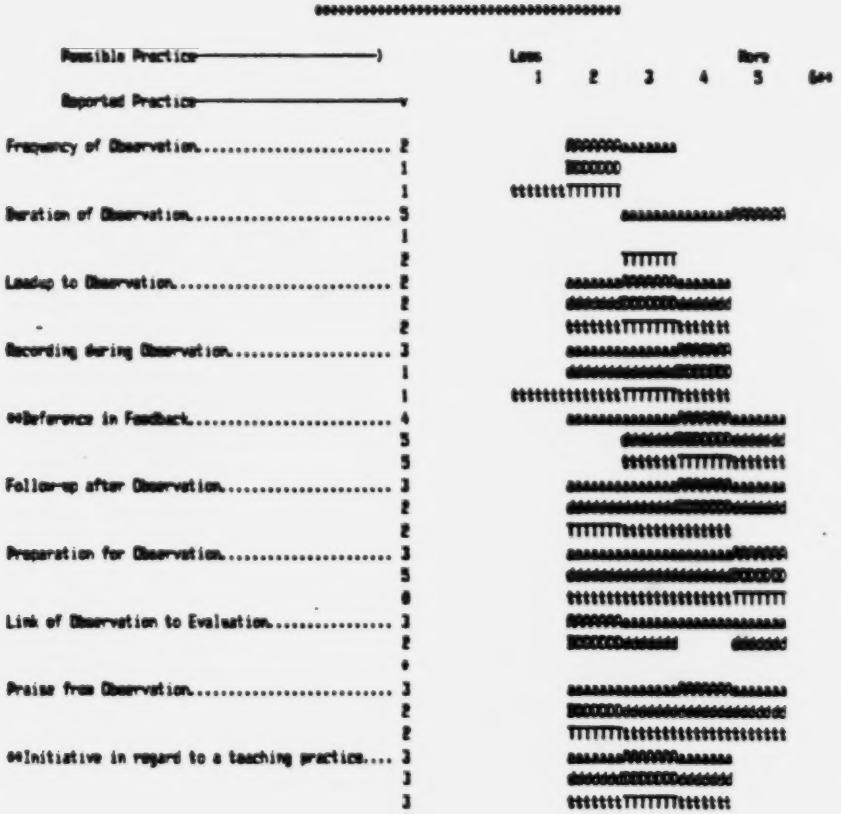

TABLE 5-IS 4 A NORMAL GROUP'S VIEWS OF OBSERVATIONS OF TEACHERS

WHO RANKED:	TEACHERS
% of All Respondents	67%

ABOUT WHOM:	ADMINISTRATORS	DEPARTMENT HEAD	TEACHERS
Average Consensus (0,1)	.61	.47	.48
Average Intensity (0,3)	1.94	1.84	1.81
Average Tendency (-3,+3)	.36	-.61	-.05
KEY:	A	D	T

Possible Practice → / Reported Practice ↓		Less 1	2	3	4	More 5	6++	TEN	INT	CON
Frequency of Observation	A	2.1	-1.0	.5	.5	-1.4	-2.3		-.9	2.5	.5
	D	1.1	-.2	.1	-.8	-1.6	-2.0		-1.2	2.4	.5
	T	1.0	.5	.5	-.4	-1.2	-1.6		-.6	2.4	.4
Duration of Observation	A	4.7	-1.9	-1.2	.4	.8	1.4		-.2	2.5	.6
	D	1.0	-1.6	-1.0	-.3	-.8	-.4		-.9	2.4	.4
	T	1.7	-1.3	-.9	.1	-.4	-.3		-.6	2.1	.3
Leading to Observation	A	1.9	-1.0	1.4	1.8	.9	-1.2		.5	2.3	.6
	D	2.3	-1.3	.3	.4	.2	-.8		-.1	2.1	.4
	T	2.3	-1.5	.0	.7	.6	.0		.0	2.2	.4
Recording during Observation	A	3.2	-.5	.8	1.4	1.7	-.3		.7	2.0	.6
	D	1.0	-.1	.5	.9	1.0	-.6		.4	1.9	.5
	T	1.0	.0	.2	.7	.6	-.8		.1	1.9	.3
**Reference in Feedback	A	3.5	-1.5	.2	1.7	2.2	1.0	-2.4	.3	2.3	.8
	D	4.7	-1.0	-.5	.8	1.5	1.3	-2.0	-.2	2.2	.6
	T	5.0	-2.1	-1.0	.5	1.2	1.0	-1.7	-.5	2.2	.6
Follow-up after Observation	A	2.0	-1.7	1.0	.9	1.7	1.5		.9	2.1	.9
	D	1.5	-1.6	.5	.5	.8	.5		.3	1.9	.6
	T	2.0	-1.5	.2	.2	.2	-.1		-.2	2.0	.4
Preparation for Observation	A	2.5	-2.3	.8	1.7	1.4	2.2		.9	2.4	.8
	D	3.0	-2.2	.4	1.1	1.0	1.0		.5	2.2	.7
	T	.0	-2.0	.0	.7	.6	1.3		.1	2.2	.5
Link of Observation to Evaluation	A	2.7	-2.4	1.5	.7	.2	1.0		.3	2.2	.7
	D	2.0	-2.1	1.2	.4	-.3	.0		-.2	2.3	.5
Praise from Observation	A	3.1	-2.6	2.7	2.6	2.0	1.2		1.6	3.0	1.0
	D	2.0	-2.4	2.4	2.3	2.3	.0		1.2	2.7	.9
	T	1.0	-2.0	2.4	2.2	2.0	.7		1.2	2.6	.7
**Initiative in regard to a teaching practice	A	3.2	-2.1	1.7	2.3	2.0	-.3	-2.4	.3	2.4	.9
	D	2.5	-1.9	1.6	2.0	1.3	-.8	-2.4	.0	2.4	.8
	T	2.6	-1.8	1.6	1.7	.0	-2.2		-.2	2.4	.8

TABLE 5-1 3 A NORMATIVE GROUP'S VIEWS OF OBSERVATIONS OF TEACHERS

RND RANKED:
% of All Respondents

DEPARTMENT HEAD
25%

ABOUT WHOM:	ADMINISTRATORS	DEPARTMENT HEAD	TEACHERS
Average Consensus	.61	.44	.37
Average Intensity	1.80	1.62	1.59
Average Tendency	.15	-.21	-.36
KEY: Tolerable Behavior	aaaaaaaa	dddddddd	tttttttt
Most approved Behavior	A	D	T

Possible Practice

Reported Practice

		Less 1	2	3	4	5	More 6++
Frequency of Observation	1	aaaaaaaAAAAAAA					
	1	DDDDDDddddddd					
	1	TTTTTTT					
Duration of Observation	5					aaaaaaaAAAAAAA	
	0			DDDDDDddddddd			
	3			TTTTTTTttttttt			
Leadup to Observation	2		aaaaaaaAAAAAAaaaaaaa				
	0		dddddddDDDDDDddddddddddddd				
	3		TTTTTTTttttttttttttttt				
Recording during Observation	4		aaaaaaaaaaaaaAAAAAA				
	1		DDDDDDddddddd				
	1		TTTTTTTttttttt				
Reference in Feedback	3		AAAAAAaaaaaaaaaaaaa				
	0		DDDDDDddddddd				
	0		TTTTTTTttttttt				
Follow-up after Observation	4		aaaaaaaaaaaaaAAAAAAaaaaaaa				
	0		DDDDDDddddddddddddddddddddd				
	0					TTTTTTT	
Preparation for Observation	3		aaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaAAAAAAA				
	0		dddddddddddddddddddDDDDDD				
	0		ttttttttttttttt			TTTTTTT	
Link of Observation to Evaluation	3		aaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaAAAAAA				
	0		DDDDDDddddddd				
	*						
Praise from Observation	3		aaaaaaaaaaaaaAAAAAAaaaaaaa				
	2		dddddddddddddDDDDDDddddddd				
	2		TTTTTTTttttttttttttttttttttt				
Initiative in regard to a teaching practice	4		aaaaaaaAAAAAAaaaaaaa				
	0		dddddddDDDDDDddddddd				
	2		ttttttttTTTTTTT				

TABLE 5-IS 3 A NORMAL GROUP'S VIEWS OF OBSERVATIONS OF TEACHERS

WHO RANKED:
% of All Respondents

DEPARTMENT HEAD
25%

ABOUT WHOM:	ADMINISTRATORS	DEPARTMENT HEAD	TEACHERS
Average Consensus (0,1)	.61	.44	.37
Average Intensity (0,3)	1.88	1.62	1.39
Average Tendency (-3,+3)	.15	-.21	-.36
KEY:	A	D	T

Possible Practice → / Reported Practice ↓		Less 1	2	3	4	More 5	6++	TEN	INT	CON
Frequency of Observation	A 1.2	.0	1.1	-.3	-1.5	-2.1		-.6	2.4	.5
	D 1.0	.3	.2	-1.7	-2.3	-2.6		-1.3	2.5	.6
	T 1.0	.0	-.6	-1.2	-1.7	-2.2		-.8	2.2	.6
Duration of Observation	A 4.5	-2.2	-1.8	-.6	1.4	1.7		-.3	2.5	.8
	D .0	-2.1	-1.8	.5	.0	-.4		-.6	2.5	.4
	T 2.0	-1.4	-.8	.5	.5	-.2		-.1	1.9	.4
Leading to Observation	A 2.2	-1.2	1.1	1.5	.4	-1.2		.4	2.1	.6
	D .0	-1.8	.3	1.0	.3	.3		.5	2.1	.5
	T 2.0	-1.8	-.2	.3	.3	.0		.0	1.9	.4
Recording during Observation	A 3.5	-1.7	.2	1.1	1.8	-.9		.3	2.1	.7
	D 1.0	-1.3	-.1	.5	.5	-1.1		.1	1.9	.4
	T 1.0	-1.0	-.1	.3	.0	-1.2		-.1	1.7	.4
**Reference in Feedback	A 3.2	-1.3	-.3	1.2	.5	.3	-2.3	-.2	2.0	.7
	D .0	-1.7	-1.3	.3	.2	-.1	-1.6	-.5	1.8	.6
	T .0	-1.8	-1.4	.1	.0	-.3	-1.3	-.6	1.9	.5
Follow-up after Observation	A 4.1	-2.4	1.7	1.2	1.0	1.3		.9	2.5	.9
	D .0	-1.7	1.2	.9	1.0	.4		.7	2.1	.6
	T .0	-1.6	-.3	-.2	-.1	.0		-.2	2.5	.3
Preparation for Observation	A 2.9	-2.2	.2	1.3	.7	1.8		.6	2.4	.7
	D .0	-1.4	.4	.6	.5	1.1		.6	1.9	.6
	T .0	-1.3	.1	.3	-.5	.5		.2	2.0	.5
Link of Observation to Evaluation	A 2.7	-2.2	1.2	.7	1.1	1.4		.6	2.2	.8
	D .0	-1.8	.7	.0	-.1	-.1		-.1	2.1	.4
Praise from Observation	A 2.0	-2.6	2.3	2.1	2.7	1.0		1.4	2.9	1.0
	D 2.0	-2.1	1.3	1.4	1.7	.3		.7	2.5	.6
	T 2.0	-1.8	1.3	1.3	1.2	.1		.6	2.5	.5
**Initiative in regard to a teaching practice	A 2.9	-2.1	1.6	2.1	1.3	-.5	-2.3	.3	2.4	.9
	D .0	-1.5	1.4	2.0	.7	-.8	-2.0	.2	2.1	.8
	T 2.0	-1.7	1.0	1.7	-.2	-2.2		-.1	2.4	.7

TABLE 5-1 2 A NOMINAL GROUP'S VIEWS OF OBSERVATIONS OF TEACHERS

WHO RESPONDED:
% of All Respondents

	ADMINISTRATORS
	65

ABOUT WHOM:	ADMINISTRATORS	DEPARTMENT HEAD	TEACHERS
Average Consensus	.69	.58	.45
Average Intensity	2.33	2.37	2.32
Average Tendency	.90	1.17	1.13
KEY: Tolerable Behavior	aaaaaaaa	dddddddd	tttttttt
Most approved Behavior	A	D	T

Possible Practice ——————————)

Reported Practice ——————————v

		Less 1	2	3	4	5	More 6++
Frequency of Observation	3						
	1						
	1						
Duration of Observation	5						
	1						
	1						
Leadup to Observation	1						
	0						
	0						
Recording during Observation	4						
	0						
	0						
ce/Reference in Feedback	3						
	0						
	0						
Follow-up after Observation	3						
	0						
	0						
Preparation for Observation	3						
	0						
	0						
Link of Observation to Evaluation	3						
	0						
	*						
Praise from Observation	4						
	3						
	0						
ce/Initiative in regard to a teaching practice	4						
	0						
	0						

TABLE 5-15 2 A NORMAL GROUP'S VIEWS OF OBSERVATIONS OF TEACHERS

WHO RESPONDED: ADMINISTRATORS
% of All Respondents 61

ABOUT WHOM:	ADMINISTRATORS	DEPARTMENT HEAD	TEACHERS
Average Consensus (0,1)	.69	.58	.65
Average Intensity (0,3)	2.33	2.37	2.32
Average Tendency (-3,+3)	.98	1.17	1.13
KEY:	A	D	T

Possible Practice → / Reported Practice ↓		Less 1	2	3	4	More 5	6++	TEN	INT	CON
Frequency of Observation	A 2.5	-2.3	-.3	.7	.7	.3		-.3	2.6	.2
	D 1.0	-.3	1.3	1.0	-1.3	-2.0		-.4	2.3	.5
	T 1.0	.0	2.3	1.3	1.0	.7		1.0	2.4	.3
Duration of Observation	A 5.0	-1.0	-1.0	.3	2.3	3.0		-.1	3.0	.9
	D 1.0	-.7	-.3	1.3	2.7	1.7		.0	2.0	.2
	T 1.0	-.3	-.3	1.0	2.7	1.0		.7	2.5	.2
Leadup to Observation	A 1.3	2.3	2.3	2.3	1.7	-2.0		1.4	2.5	1.0
	D .0	2.3	2.7	3.0	3.0	.0		2.2	2.9	.0
	T .0	1.0	1.0	2.7	2.7	.0		1.5	2.5	.4
Recording during Observation	A 2.7	-2.7	1.3	2.3	3.0	1.3		1.2	2.6	.0
	D .0	-.7	2.3	2.7	3.0	1.3		1.0	2.7	.6
	T .0	-1.0	1.7	2.3	2.7	1.3		1.4	2.6	.5
oo Reference in Feedback	A 3.0	.0	1.3	2.7	1.7	2.3	-1.0	.9	2.7	.6
	D .0	-.7	1.7	2.7	2.3	1.7	-1.0	1.1	2.7	.4
	T .0	-1.0	1.7	2.7	1.7	1.3	-.7	.9	2.0	.3
Follow-up after Observation	A 2.3	-2.3	2.0	1.3	2.0	2.3		1.2	2.5	.9
	D .0	-2.0	2.3	2.3	2.0	2.3		1.5	2.5	.9
	T .0	-2.3	2.3	2.3	2.0	1.0		1.0	2.6	.7
Preparation for Observation	A 2.7	-2.3	1.7	2.0	2.3	2.7		1.4	2.6	1.0
	D .0	-2.0	2.7	2.7	2.3	2.3		1.7	2.7	1.0
	T .0	-1.7	2.7	2.7	2.3	2.3		1.7	2.7	1.0
Link of Observation to Evaluation	A 2.3	-2.7	.3	2.3	2.3	2.3		1.0	2.5	.9
	D .0	-2.3	1.3	2.3	2.0	1.3		.9	2.6	.6
Praise from Observation	A 4.0	-1.0	2.3	2.3	3.0	1.0		1.4	2.9	.9
	D 2.0	-1.0	2.7	2.7	2.0	-.3		1.0	3.0	.8
	T .0	-1.0	2.7	2.3	2.0	.3		1.0	2.9	.7
oo Initiative in regard to a teaching practice	A 3.7	-1.0	3.0	3.0	3.0	1.3	1.7	1.5	3.1	.9
	D .0	-1.0	3.0	2.7	2.3	1.0	1.7	1.3	2.8	.8
	T .0	-1.0	3.0	2.7	2.3	-.3		.9	3.1	.8

TABLE 5-4 [illegible] CHARACTERISTICS AND VIEWS

[illegible] RESPONDED:	ADMINISTRATORS	DEPARTMENT HEAD	TEACHERS
Average Age	39.33	48.92	35.13
Female	.00	41.67	50.00
American Native, Indian	.00	.00	.00
Asian-American	.00	.00	.00
Black, Negro	.00	.00	.00
Mexican-American, Hispanic	.00	.00	.00
White	100.00	100.00	100.00
Who Are Teachers	.00	.00	100.00
Who Are Dept. Heads	.00	100.00	.00
Average Years in Position	6.33	11.50	9.03
Average Years in This School	11.33	9.75	5.53
Average Activities Scale Score (5 = least active, 15 = most active	14.67	10.50	11.34
Who Spend Discretionary Time:			
In a faculty lounge	33.33	25.00	25.00
In a faculty lunchroom	.00	16.67	3.13
In a preparation room	.00	91.67	68.75
In the department office	33.33	50.00	43.75
In the school office	66.67	16.67	18.75
In an unused classroom	.00	33.00	43.75
In the schools hallways	66.67	.00	3.13
In the school library	33.33	41.67	31.25
In other places	66.67	8.33	18.75
Average Assessment of Observation of Teachers (7 = least favorable, 35 = most favorable)	31.33	25.64	27.94
Average Assessment of Evaluation of Teachers (4 = least favorable, 20 = most favorable)	13.00	16.00	17.42

TABLE 6-C: RESPONDENTS' ASSESSMENTS OF OBSERVATION

Item range: 1=strongly disagree, 2=disagree, 3=not sure, 4=agree, 5=strongly agree.

ASSESSMENTS OF OBSERVATION PRACTICES	Admins	D.Heads	Teachers
1. In my school, feedback on teaching is concrete, specific.	4.0	3.9	3.6
2. In my school, feedback on teaching can be used to improve teaching.	4.5	4.1	4.1
3. In my school, teachers ignore feedback on their teaching.	2.0	2.1	2.4
4. When teachers use the feedback they receive, their teaching improves and students do better.	4.0	4.0	3.5
5. Being observed and receiving feedback is a comfortable and welcome experience for teachers in this school.	4.0	3.5	3.1
6. In this school, observation of teaching is an empty, useless ritual.	1.0	1.5	2.1
7. In this school, observation of teachers is a valuable professional tool.	4.5	3.9	3.4
Mean scale score (scale range = 7-35): (Items 3 and 6 reversed for scale score.)	30.0	27.8	25.2

ASSESSMENTS OF THOSE WHO OBSERVE TEACHERS	Admins	D.Heads	Teachers
1. Those who observe teachers in this school strive to help teachers improve their teaching.	5.0	4.1	4.0
2. Those who observe teachers in this school strive to provide fair and valid evaluations of teachers.	5.0	3.6	3.8
3. Those who observe teachers in this school make their observation criteria clear.	4.5	4.0	4.0
4. Those who observe teachers in this school use fair, understandable standards for evaluating teaching.	4.5	3.8	3.6
Mean scale score (scale range = 4-20)	19.0	15.5	15.3

TABLE 6-1 4 [illegible] GROUP'S VIEWS OF OBSERVATIONS OF TEACHERS

WHO ANSWERED:	TEACHERS
% of All Respondents	65%

ABOUT WHOM:	ADMINISTRATORS	DEPARTMENT HEAD	TEACHERS
Average Consensus	.60	.58	.54
Average Intensity	1.87	1.71	1.61
Average Tendency	.38	.29	.33
KEY: Tolerable Behavior	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]
Most approved Behavior	A	D	T

[illegible]

Possible Practice ——————————)

Reported Practice ——————————v

		Less 1	2	3	4	More 5	6++
Frequency of Observation	2		[illegible]				
	1		[illegible]				
	1		[illegible]				
Duration of Observation	4			[illegible]			
	2			[illegible]			
	1		[illegible]				
Lead-up to Observation	2		[illegible]				
	4		[illegible]				
	4		[illegible]				
Recording during Observation	3		[illegible]				
	2		[illegible]				
	1		[illegible]				
[illegible]Reference in Feedback	3		[illegible]				
	4			[illegible]			
	4		[illegible]				
Follow-up after Observation	3		[illegible]				
	3		[illegible]				
	2		[illegible]				
Preparation for Observation	3		[illegible]				
	2		[illegible]				
	2		[illegible]				
Link of Observation to Evaluation	3		[illegible]				
	5		[illegible]				
	0						
Praise from Observation	3		[illegible]				
	2		[illegible]				
	2		[illegible]				
[illegible]Initiative in regard to a teaching practice	4		[illegible]				
	2		[illegible]				
	3		[illegible]				

TABLE 6-IS 4 A NOMINAL GROUP'S VIEWS OF OBSERVATIONS OF TEACHERS

WHO ANSWERED: TEACHERS
% of All Respondents 69%

ABOUT WHOM:	ADMINISTRATORS	DEPARTMENT HEAD	TEACHERS
Average Consensus (0,1)	.60	.58	.54
Average Intensity (0,3)	1.87	1.71	1.61
Average Tendency (-3,+3)	.38	.29	.33
KEY:	A	D	T

Possible Practice → Less 1 2 3 4 5 More 6** TEN INT CON

Reported Practice ↓

Frequency of Observation	A	2.3	-2.0	.5	1.2	-.8	-2.1		-.8	2.3	.7
	D	1.0	-.7	.8	-.4	-1.7	-2.1		-1.0	2.1	.6
	T	1.0	-.2	1.1	.2	-1.0	-1.7		-.2	2.0	.5
Duration of Observation	A	4.0	-2.6	-1.9	.8	1.7	1.3		-.1	2.4	.9
	D	1.5	-1.8	-.8	.9	.8	.1		-.1	2.1	.6
	T	1.4	-1.8	.8	1.3	.8	-.1		.2	1.9	.5
Lead-up to Observation	A	2.3	-.7	1.5	2.2	1.3	-1.5		.8	2.3	.7
	D	2.5	-.5	.9	1.5	1.2	-.5		.7	1.9	.5
	T	4.3	-.8	.7	1.0	1.5	-.2		.8	1.9	.6
Recording during Observation	A	2.2	-1.3	1.1	2.0	1.8	.4		.9	2.2	.7
	D	1.5	-.3	1.1	1.4	1.0	-.1		.7	1.8	.6
	T	1.0	.1	1.2	1.4	.8	-.4		.7	1.7	.5
**Reference in Feedback	A	3.5	-1.1	.1	1.5	2.0	1.6	-2.5	.3	2.3	.8
	D	4.0	-1.5	-.5	1.3	1.5	1.3	-1.9	-.1	2.2	.7
	T	4.3	-1.9	-.7	.8	1.4	1.3	-1.9	-.3	2.2	.7
Follow-up after Observation	A	2.5	-1.7	1.5	1.2	1.9	1.8		1.1	2.2	1.0
	D	2.5	-1.3	1.4	1.2	1.5	1.2		.9	2.0	.8
	T	1.7	-.8	1.0	1.0	.5	.1		.4	1.8	.6
Preparation for Observation	A	3.2	-2.3	.8	1.8	1.3	2.1		.9	2.2	1.0
	D	2.8	-2.0	1.1	1.6	1.8	2.0		.9	2.1	.9
	T	1.7	-1.4	.9	1.4	.9	1.8		.9	1.8	.8
Link of Observation to Evaluation	A	2.5	-2.4	1.3	.5	.5	1.3		.3	2.2	.7
	D	3.0	-2.0	1.3	.4	.2	.4		.1	2.2	.5
Praise from Observation	A	3.1	-2.7	2.4	2.3	2.8	.4		1.3	2.8	1.0
	D	2.8	-2.5	2.4	2.5	2.7	.6		1.4	2.8	1.0
	T	2.8	-2.0	2.3	2.5	2.4	.6		1.4	2.7	.9
**Initiative in regard to a teaching practice	A	4.8	-1.7	1.4	1.9	1.5	-.8	-2.3	.8	2.3	.8
	D	2.1	-1.5	1.4	1.9	1.3	-.9	-2.1	.1	2.2	.7
	T	2.5	-1.4	1.2	1.6	-.1	-2.0		.8	2.1	.7

TABLE 6-1 3 A NOMINAL GROUP'S VIEWS OF OBSERVATIONS OF TEACHERS

AND ANSWERED:
% of All Respondents

DEPARTMENT HEAD
19%

ABOUT WHOM:	ADMINISTRATORS	DEPARTMENT HEAD	TEACHERS
Average Consensus	.59	.47	.46
Average Intensity	1.84	1.88	1.64
Average Tendency	.25	.18	.27
KEY: Tolerable Behavior	aaaaaaaa	dddddddd	tttttttt
Most approved Behavior	A	D	T

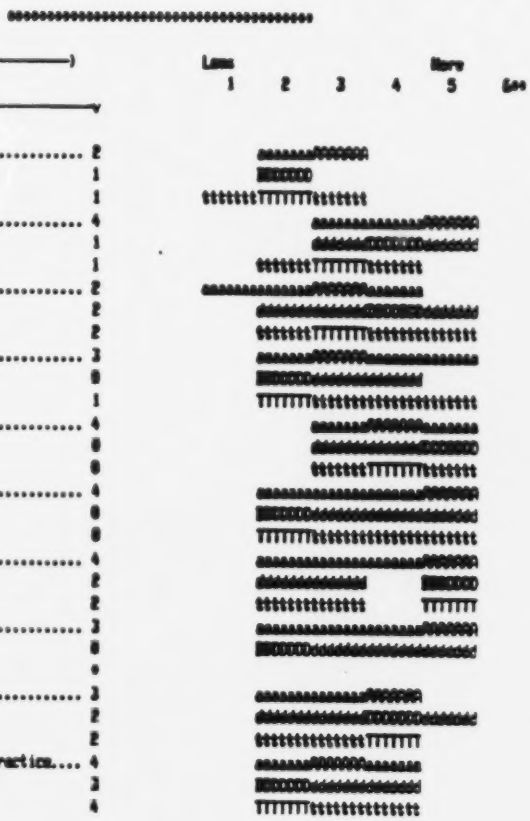

TABLE 6-IS 3 A NOMINAL GROUP'S VIEWS OF OBSERVATIONS OF TEACHERS

GROUP RANKED:	DEPARTMENT HEAD
% of All Respondents	19%

ABOUT WHOM:	ADMINISTRATORS	DEPARTMENT HEAD	TEACHERS
Average Consensus (0,1)	.39	.47	.46
Average Intensity (0,3)	1.84	1.89	1.64
Average Tendency (-3,+3)	.25	.19	.27
KEY:	A	D	T

Possible Practice → / Reported Practice ↓		Less 1	2	3	4	5	More 6+	TEN	INT	CON
Frequency of Observation	A	1.9	-.8	.1	.5	-1.4	-1.6	-.6	2.3	.6
	D	1.8	-.5	.4	-.3	-1.3	-1.6	-.7	2.4	.5
	T	1.8	.3	.6	.5	-.1	-.4	.3	2.3	.3
Duration of Observation	A	2.9	-1.9	-1.8	.4	1.1	1.5	.8	2.2	.7
	D	1.8	-1.6	-1.1	.5	.9	.9	.8	2.3	.6
	T	1.2	-1.1	.4	.6	.3	-.1	.1	2.2	.5
Lead-up to Observation	A	2.3	.8	1.9	2.8	1.5	-1.6	1.8	2.3	.7
	D	2.8	-1.8	.4	1.6	1.9	.8	.8	2.3	.5
	T	2.8	-.4	1.3	2.8	1.8	.4	1.8	2.2	.7
Recording during Observation	A	1.3	-.9	.6	1.3	.8	.1	.6	2.2	.6
	D	.8	-.4	.9	.9	.3	-.4	.5	2.1	.5
	T	1.8	-.1	.6	.6	.4	.8	.5	1.9	.5
**Reference in Feedback	A	1.7	-1.6	-.8	1.5	1.8	.9	-2.1	.8	2.2	.8
	D	.8	-2.1	-1.4	.5	.4	.6	-2.1	-.6	2.8	.7
	T	.8	-2.1	-1.4	.4	.5	.8	-1.6	-.7	2.8	.7
Follow-up after Observation	A	1.6	-1.9	1.5	.8	1.5	1.6	1.8	2.2	.9
	D	.8	-1.3	.6	.4	.5	.1	.3	1.9	.7
	T	.8	-1.8	1.3	.8	.8	.4	.5	2.8	.7
Preparation for Observation	A	1.5	-2.4	.8	1.6	.3	2.5	.8	2.4	.9
	D	2.8	-2.4	.5	1.4	-.4	2.1	.6	2.3	.8
	T	2.8	-1.8	.1	1.4	-.1	2.1	.7	2.2	.8
Link of Observation to Evaluation	A	2.6	-2.4	.8	.9	.6	1.1	.5	2.6	.6
	D	.8	-1.3	1.4	.4	.1	.3	.3	2.6	.1
Praise from Observation	A	3.8	-2.4	2.1	2.1	2.8	-.3	1.2	2.7	1.8
	D	2.8	-2.3	2.1	2.3	2.6	.8	1.2	2.7	.9
	T	2.8	-2.1	2.3	2.8	2.5	-.1	1.2	2.5	.9
**Initiative in regard to a teaching practice	A	4.1	-1.8	1.1	1.6	1.1	-1.4	-1.9	.8	2.5	.6
	D	3.8	-1.3	1.9	1.9	.9	-1.8	-1.5	.3	2.4	.7
	T	4.9	-.8	1.6	1.6	.6	-1.4		.5	2.2	.6

TABLE 6-1 2 A NOMINAL GROUP'S VIEWS OF OBSERVATIONS OF TEACHERS

WHO ANSWERED: ADMINISTRATORS
% of All Respondents 3%

ABOUT WHOM:	ADMINISTRATORS	DEPARTMENT HEAD	TEACHERS
Average Consensus	.77	.64	.71
Average Intensity	2.36	2.27	2.28
Average Tendency	.88	.67	.72
KEY: Tolerable Behavior	aaaaaaaa	dddddddd	tttttttt
Most approved Behavior	A	D	T

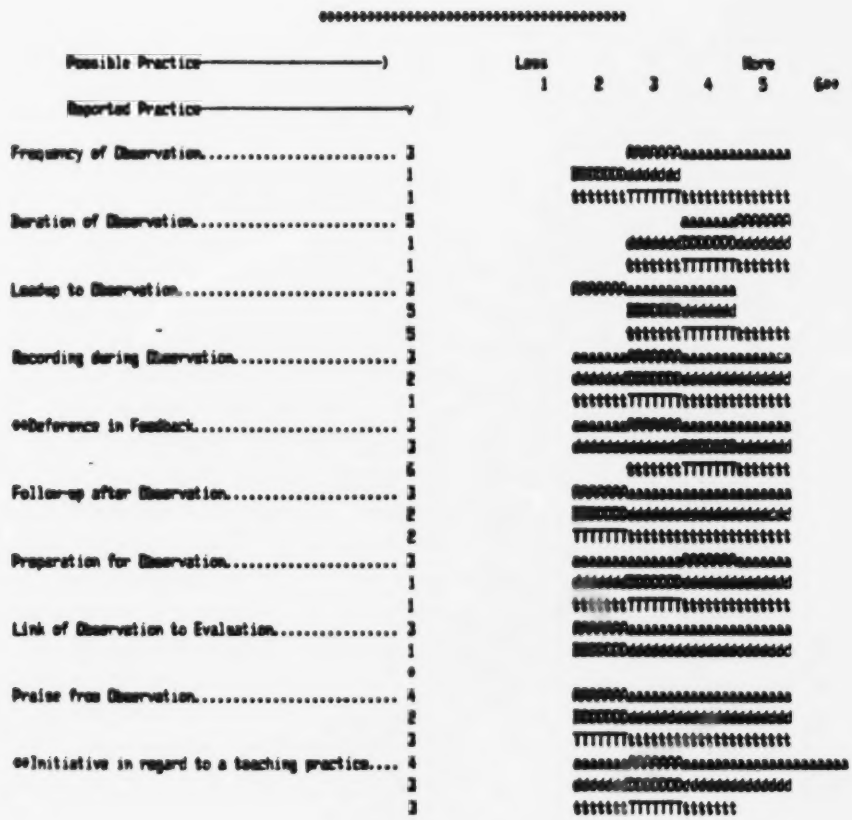

TABLE 6-IS 2 A NOMINAL GROUP'S VIEWS OF OBSERVATIONS OF TEACHERS

WHO ANSWERED:
% of All Respondents

ADMINISTRATORS
56

ABOUT WHOM:	ADMINISTRATORS	DEPARTMENT HEAD	TEACHERS
Average Consensus (0,1)	.77	.64	.71
Average Intensity (0,3)	2.36	2.27	2.28
Average Tendency (-3,+3)	.88	.67	.72
KEY:	A	D	T

Possible Practice → / Reported Practice ↓		Less 1	2	3	4	More 5	6**	TEN	INT	CON
Frequency of Observation	A	2.5	-1.0	-1.0	2.5	2.0	1.0		.2	2.5	.8
	D	1.0	-1.0	2.0	2.0	-2.0	-2.5		-.5	2.3	.8
	T	1.0	-1.0	2.0	1.0	.5	.0		.9	2.4	.4
Duration of Observation	A	4.5	-2.5	-2.0	-1.0	2.0	1.0		-.1	2.7	.8
	D	1.0	-2.5	-1.0	1.5	2.5	2.0		.5	2.4	.8
	T	1.0	-1.0	-1.0	1.5	2.0	2.0		.3	2.4	.8
Leadup to Observation	A	2.5	-1.0	1.0	2.0	1.5	-1.0		1.0	2.5	.6
	D	5.0	-2.0	-1.0	1.0	2.5	-.5		.5	2.5	.5
	T	5.0	-1.0	-2.0	2.5	1.0	.0		.2	2.6	.9
Recording during Observation	A	1.0	-2.5	1.0	1.0	2.5	2.0	-	1.4	2.5	1.0
	D	2.0	-2.5	1.0	1.0	2.0	1.5		1.1	2.3	1.1
	T	1.0	-2.5	1.0	1.0	2.0	1.5		1.1	2.3	1.1
**Reference in Feedback	A	1.0	-2.5	.0	1.0	2.5	.5	-1.0	.1	2.6	.8
	D	1.0	-2.5	.0	2.5	1.0	.5	-2.0	.2	2.4	.7
	T	6.0	-1.0	-.5	2.0	1.0	.5	-2.0	.0	2.5	.6
Follow-up after Observation	A	1.0	-1.0	1.0	2.5	1.5	1.5		1.3	2.7	1.1
	D	2.0	-1.0	1.0	2.0	1.5	1.5		1.1	2.5	1.1
	T	2.0	-1.0	2.5	2.5	1.5	1.5		1.1	2.5	1.0
Preparation for Observation	A	1.0	-1.0	1.0	2.5	1.0	1.0		1.4	1.1	.9
	D	1.0	-1.0	2.0	1.0	2.0	2.0		1.7	1.1	1.1
	T	1.0	-1.0	2.0	1.0	2.5	2.5		1.5	2.9	1.0
Link of Observation to Evaluation	A	2.5	-1.0	1.0	2.5	2.5	2.0		1.5	1.0	1.0
	D	1.0	-.5	2.0	.5	.5	.0		.5	2.9	-.4
Praise from Observation	A	4.0	-1.0	1.0	1.0	1.0	2.0		1.0	1.3	1.1
	D	2.0	-1.0	1.0	1.0	1.0	2.0		1.4	1.1	.8
	T	2.5	-1.0	1.0	2.5	1.0	2.0		1.3	2.9	.8
**Initiative in regard to a teaching practice	A	4.0	-1.0	1.5	1.0	1.0	1.5	.5	1.1	2.6	.9
	D	1.0	-1.0	2.5	1.0	2.5	.0	-1.0	.7	2.5	1.0
	T	1.0	-1.0	2.5	1.0	2.0	-.5		.8	1.0	.8

TABLE 6-4 GROUP CHARACTERISTICS AND VIEWS

WHO ANSWERED:	ADMINISTRATORS	DEPARTMENT HEAD	TEACHERS
Average Age	42.50	38.00	31.34
%Female	.00	50.00	55.17
%American Native, Indian	.00	.00	3.45
%Asian-American	.00	.00	.00
%Black, Negro	.00	.00	.00
%Mexican-American, Hispanic	.00	.00	.00
%White	100.00	100.00	96.55
%Who Are Teachers	.00	.00	100.00
%Who Are Dept. Heads	.00	100.00	.00
Average Years in Position	6.00	8.50	6.48
Average Years in This School	6.00	4.63	3.34
Average Activities Scale Score (5 = least active, 15 = most active	15.00	13.25	11.07
%Who Spend Discretionary Time:			
In a faculty lounge	100.00	50.00	48.28
In a faculty lunchroom	.00	12.50	17.24
In a preparation room	.00	62.50	44.83
In the department office	50.00	12.50	41.38
In the school office	50.00	50.00	27.59
In an unused classroom	.00	75.00	58.62
In the schools hallways	100.00	.00	3.45
In the school library	.00	37.50	13.79
In other places	.00	.00	6.90
Average Assessment of Observation of Teachers (7 = least favorable, 35 = most favorable)	28.00	27.75	25.07
Average Assessment of Evaluation of Teachers (4 = least favorable, 20 = most favorable)	19.00	15.50	15.32

TABLE 7-C: RESPONDENTS' ASSESSMENTS OF OBSERVATION

Item range: 1=strongly disagree, 2=disagree, 3=not sure, 4=agree, 5=strongly agree.

ASSESSMENTS OF OBSERVATION PRACTICES	Admins	D.Heads	Teachers
1. In my school, feedback on teaching is concrete, specific.	4.0	4.0	3.7
2. In my school, feedback on teaching can be used to improve teaching.	4.0	4.3	3.9
3. In my school, teachers ignore feedback on their teaching.	3.0	2.7	2.6
4. When teachers use the feedback they receive, their teaching improves and students do better.	4.5	3.7	3.6
5. Being observed and receiving feedback is a comfortable and welcome experience for teachers in this school.	4.0	3.2	3.2
6. In this school, observation of teaching is an empty, useless ritual.	2.0	2.2	2.3
7. In this school, observation of teachers is a valuable professional tool.	3.5	3.4	3.5
Mean scale score (scale range = 7-35): (Items 3 and 6 reversed for scale score.)	27.0	25.7	25.0

ASSESSMENTS OF THOSE WHO OBSERVE TEACHERS	Admins	D.Heads	Teachers
1. Those who observe teachers in this school strive to help teachers improve their teaching.	4.0	4.1	3.6
2. Those who observe teachers in this school strive to provide fair and valid evaluations of teachers.	4.0	4.3	3.9
3. Those who observe teachers in this school make their observation criteria clear.	3.0	3.9	3.6
4. Those who observe teachers in this school use fair, understandable standards for evaluating teaching.	4.0	4.0	3.8
Mean scale score (scale range = 4-20)	15.0	16.3	14.8

TABLE 7-1 4 A REGIONAL GROUP'S VIEWS OF OBSERVATIONS OF TEACHERS

AMD RESPONDED:
% of All Respondents

TEACHERS
70%

ABOUT WHEN:	ADMINISTRATORS	DEPARTMENT HEAD	TEACHERS
Average Consensus	.60	.56	.42
Average Intensity	1.09	1.92	1.68
Average Tendency	.15	.14	.01
KEY: Tolerable Behavior	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]
Most approved Behavior	A	D	T

[illegible]

Possible Practice ——————)
Reported Practice ——————v

		Less 1	2	3	4	More 5	6++
Frequency of Observation	1	[illegible]					
	2	[illegible]					
	1	[illegible]					
Duration of Observation	3			[illegible]			
	3			[illegible]			
	2			[illegible]			
Lead-up to Observation	2		[illegible]				
	2		[illegible]				
	3			[illegible]			
Recording during Observation	3			[illegible]			
	3			[illegible]			
	1	[illegible]					
++Reference in Feedback	4				[illegible]		
	4				[illegible]		
	5					[illegible]	
Follow-up after Observation	4				[illegible]		
	4				[illegible]		
	2		[illegible]				
Preparation for Observation	3			[illegible]			
	3			[illegible]			
	1	[illegible]					
Link of Observation to Evaluation	3			[illegible]			
	3			[illegible]			
	0	[illegible]					
Praise from Observation	3			[illegible]			
	3			[illegible]			
	2		[illegible]				
++Initiative in regard to a teaching practice	3			[illegible]			
	3			[illegible]			
	2		[illegible]				

TABLE 7-IS 4 A NOMINAL GROUP'S VIEWS OF OBSERVATIONS OF TEACHERS

WHO RANKERED: TEACHERS
% of All Respondents 70%

ABOUT WHOM:	ADMINISTRATORS	DEPARTMENT HEAD	TEACHERS
Average Consensus (0,1)	.60	.56	.42
Average Intensity (0,3)	1.89	1.92	1.68
Average Tendency (-3,+3)	.15	.14	.01
KEY:	A	D	T

Possible Practice → Less 1 2 3 4 5 More 6++ | Reported Practice ↓ | TEN | INT | CON

Frequency of Observation	A	1.3	.8	.7	-.6	-1.9	-2.5		-.8	2.5	.6
	D	1.9	.2	1.0	-.1	-1.8	-2.4		-.7	2.4	.6
	T	1.1	.4	.6	-.5	-1.3	-1.7		-.4	2.1	.4
Duration of Observation	A	2.6	-2.0	-.8	1.8	.1	-1.3		-.5	2.4	.6
	D	2.8	-1.8	-.6	1.7	.3	-1.3		-.2	2.4	.6
	T	2.1	-1.3	-.5	1.0	.1	-.9		-.2	2.1	.4
Leadup to Observation	A	2.1	-1.4	.9	1.9	1.3	-.6		.6	2.2	.7
	D	2.5	-1.8	.8	1.9	1.2	-.6		.7	2.2	.6
	T	1.1	-1.1	.1	1.3	1.2	.2		.5	2.1	.4
Recording during Observation	A	2.5	-1.1	.9	1.5	1.2	-.4		.6	1.9	.7
	D	2.8	-1.1	.9	1.5	1.1	-.5		.5	2.0	.7
	T	1.4	-.1	.5	.8	.6	-.6		.3	1.6	.4
++Reference in Feedback	A	3.6	-1.8	-.6	1.1	1.9	1.6	-2.2	.0	2.4	.8
	D	3.8	-1.9	-.8	1.1	1.9	1.5	-2.1	.0	2.3	.3
	T	3.2	-2.1	-1.2	.5	1.2	.9	-1.5	-.5	2.2	.6
Follow-up after Observation	A	2.7	-2.1	1.2	.7	1.2	1.2		.6	2.2	.8
	D	2.8	-2.2	1.1	.5	1.3	1.3		.6	2.3	.8
	T	2.1	-1.4	.9	.3	.2	-.1		.0	2.0	.4
Preparation for Observation	A	2.1	-2.4	.5	2.0	.8	2.1		.8	2.5	.8
	D	2.8	-2.4	.5	1.9	.6	2.0		.8	2.6	.8
	T	1.2	-1.6	.4	1.2	.2	1.5		.5	2.1	.6
Link of Observation to Evaluation	A	2.0	-2.3	1.1	.8	.5	1.3		.3	2.2	.7
	D	2.0	-2.1	1.0	.6	.2	1.1		.2	2.3	.6
Praise from Observation	A	2.7	-2.5	2.3	2.2	2.7	.1		1.2	2.9	.9
	D	3.0	-2.6	2.3	2.3	2.6	-.3		1.1	3.0	.9
	T	1.9	-1.9	2.0	1.7	1.6	-.4		.8	2.5	.7
++Initiative in regard to a teaching practice	A	3.0	-1.7	1.4	1.6	1.2	-1.4	-2.8	-.3	2.4	.8
	D	2.5	-1.7	1.6	1.7	1.1	-1.5	-2.8	-.3	2.4	.8
	T	2.6	-1.4	1.4	1.6	-.1	-2.2		-.1	2.2	.7

TABLE 7-1 3 A NORMAL GROUP'S VIEWS OF OBSERVATIONS OF TEACHERS

[illegible] ANSWERED:
% of All Respondents

DEPARTMENT HEAD
15%

[illegible] WHEN:	[illegible]ISTRATORS	DEPARTMENT HEAD	TEACHERS
Average Consensus	.64	.64	.42
Average Intensity	1.96	1.96	1.61
Average Tendency	.31	.39	.25
KEY: Tolerable Behavior	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]
Most approved Behavior	A	B	T

[illegible]

Possible Practice ——————→)

Reported Practice ——————→v

Less 1 2 3 4 5 6++ More

Frequency of Observation	1	[illegible]
	3	[illegible]
	1	[illegible]
Duration of Observation	3	[illegible]
	3	[illegible]
	2	[illegible]
Lead-up to Observation	3	[illegible]
	3	[illegible]
	3	[illegible]
Recording during Observation	3	[illegible]
	3	[illegible]
	1	[illegible]
[illegible]Reference in Feedback	3	[illegible]
	4	[illegible]
	3	[illegible]
Follow-up after Observation	3	[illegible]
	3	[illegible]
	1	[illegible]
Preparation for Observation	3	[illegible]
	3	[illegible]
	1	[illegible]
Link of Observation to Evaluation	4	[illegible]
	3	[illegible]
	•	
Praise from Observation	3	[illegible]
	3	[illegible]
	2	[illegible]
[illegible]Initiative in regard to a teaching practice	3	[illegible]
	2	[illegible]
	2	[illegible]

TABLE 7-IS 3 A NORMAL GROUP'S VIEWS OF OBSERVATIONS OF TEACHERS

WHO RANKED:
% of All Respondents

DEPARTMENT HEAD
15%

ABOUT WHOM:	ADMINISTRATORS	DEPARTMENT HEAD	TEACHERS
Average Consensus (0,1)	.64	.64	.42
Average Intensity (0,3)	1.96	1.96	1.61
Average Tendency (-3,+3)	.31	.39	.25
KEY:	A	D	T

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Possible Practice ——————→ Less … More

Reported Practice ——————↓

		1	2	3	4	5	6++	TEN	INT	CON
Frequency of Observation	A 1.4	-.3	.3	.1	-1.4	-1.6		-.5	2.5	.4
	D 2.6	-.4	.8	1.2	-1.8	-1.7		-.1	2.3	.6
	T 1.8	.3	.8	.4	-.4	-.5		.3	1.8	.4
Duration of Observation	A 3.8	-2.3	-.5	1.4	.5	.5		-.1	2.2	.6
	D 3.2	-1.8	-.2	2.1	1.3	.6		.4	2.2	.7
	T 2.8	-.5	.3	1.3	1.1	.5		.5	1.7	.6
Leadup to Observation	A 2.6	-1.1	2.3	2.4	1.5	-1.8		1.8	2.4	.7
	D 2.6	-1.1	1.8	2.5	1.7	-.9		1.8	2.5	.7
	T 2.5	-.5	.2	.7	1.4	.4		.8	2.1	.4
Recording during Observation	A 3.3	-1.8	.9	2.1	1.9	-.2		.8	2.1	.8
	D 3.3	-1.9	.6	2.3	2.8	-.3		.7	2.3	.8
	T 1.8	.2	.5	1.8	.4	-1.1		.4	1.7	.3
ooDeference in Feedback	A 3.4	-2.5	-1.1	.6	2.2	1.9	-2.3	-.2	2.4	.9
	D 3.8	-2.8	-.9	.9	2.1	2.8	-1.9	.8	2.4	.8
	T 3.8	-2.5	-1.9	.8	1.2	1.6	-1.8	-.5	2.2	.7
Follow-up after Observation	A 2.9	-2.2	1.3	1.8	1.8	1.6		.8	2.2	1.8
	D 3.4	-2.3	1.4	1.8	2.8	1.8		1.8	2.3	1.8
	T 1.8	-.3	.8	.3	.3	-.1		.3	1.9	.4
Preparation for Observation	A 3.1	-2.1	-.1	2.4	1.8	2.7		1.2	2.8	.8
	D 3.3	-2.8	.3	2.4	1.7	2.5		1.2	2.8	.8
	T 1.8	-1.3	.1	1.5	.5	1.8		.9	2.2	.6
Link of Observation to Evaluation	A 3.6	-2.7	1.4	1.1	.8	1.2		.3	2.4	.7
	D 3.3	-2.5	1.3	.9	-.1	1.2		.4	2.4	.7
Praise from Observation	A 3.8	-2.5	2.3	2.6	2.6	-.1		1.2	3.8	1.8
	D 2.8	-2.5	2.4	2.5	2.6	-.5		1.1	3.1	1.8
	T 2.2	-1.5	2.4	2.5	1.1	-.9		1.8	2.9	.7
ooInitiative in regard to a teaching practice	A 3.8	-1.4	1.7	2.2	.4	-1.1	-2.7	-.1	2.5	.8
	D 1.9	-1.5	1.5	2.8	.5	-1.5	-2.7	-.2	2.4	.8
	T 2.3	-.6	1.2	1.9	.9	-2.7		.3	2.3	.7

TABLE 7-1 2 A NORMAL GROUP'S VIEWS OF OBSERVATIONS OF TEACHERS

WHO ANSWERED:
% of All Respondents

ADMINISTRATORS
3%

ABOUT WHOM:	ADMINISTRATORS	DEPARTMENT HEAD	TEACHERS
Average Consensus	.65	.74	.48
Average Intensity	2.10	2.22	2.13
Average Tendency	.50	.66	.72
KEY: Tolerable Behavior	aaaaaaaa	dddddddd	tttttttt
Most approved Behavior	A	D	T

Possible Practice ——————→

Reported Practice ——————→

		Less 1	2	3	4	More 5	6**
Frequency of Observation	1						
	1						
	1						
Duration of Observation	3						
	3						
	3						
Lead-up to Observation	3						
	3						
	2						
Recording during Observation	3						
	3						
	2						
**Deference in Feedback	4						
	3						
	5						
Follow-up after Observation	5						
	4						
	1						
Preparation for Observation	3						
	0						
	1						
Link of Observation to Evaluation	5						
	5						
	*						
Praise from Observation	2						
	2						
	2						
**Initiative in regard to a teaching practice	4						
	4						
	3						

TABLE 7-IS 2 A NOMINAL GROUP'S VIEWS OF OBSERVATIONS OF TEACHERS

WHO RANKED: ADMINISTRATORS
% of All Respondents 2%

ABOUT WHOM:	ADMINISTRATORS	DEPARTMENT HEAD	TEACHERS
Average Consensus (0,1)	.65	.74	.68
Average Intensity (0,3)	2.10	2.22	2.13
Average Tendency (-3,+3)	.59	.66	.72
KEY:	A	D	T

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Possible Practice → / Reported Practice ↓		Less 1	2	3	4	More 5	6++	TEN	INT	CON
Frequency of Observation	A 1.0	-1.0	2.0	2.0	1.0	.5		.4	2.7	.4
	D 1.0	-1.0	.0	2.5	2.5	.5		.4	2.7	.6
	T 1.0	-2.0	1.5	2.5	2.0	1.0		.9	2.3	.6
Duration of Observation	A 1.0	-1.0	-1.5	2.0	.5	.5		-.4	2.3	.6
	D 1.0	-1.0	-.5	2.0	1.5	1.0		.2	2.4	.5
	T 1.0	-1.0	-2.5	2.0	1.5	.5		-.3	2.4	.8
Leadin to Observation	A 1.0	-.5	.5	2.5	1.0	-.5		.7	2.2	.2
	D 1.0	-.5	.5	2.5	2.0	.0		1.0	2.1	.5
	T 2.0	1.0	2.0	2.5	2.5	.0		1.7	2.7	.3
Recording during Observation	A 1.0	-2.0	1.0	2.5	2.0	1.5		1.1	2.1	.9
	D 1.0	-1.0	1.0	2.5	2.0	1.5		.9	2.3	1.0
	T 2.0	.5	1.5	2.0	.0	.0		.9	2.3	-.1
oo Reference in Feedback	A 4.0	-2.0	-1.5	1.0	2.5	2.5	-2.5	.0	2.3	1.0
	D 2.0	-2.5	-1.5	1.0	2.5	2.5	-2.5	-.1	2.4	1.0
	T 5.0	-1.0	-2.5	-.5	1.5	1.5	-.5	-.6	2.4	.6
Follow-up after Observation	A 5.0	-1.0	2.0	.0	1.5	2.5		.7	2.3	.9
	D 4.0	-2.5	2.0	.0	2.0	2.0		1.0	2.5	.9
	T 1.0	-1.0	1.0	1.0	.5	.0		.3	1.8	.3
Preparation for Observation	A 2.0	-1.0	.5	2.0	2.5	2.0		1.1	2.0	.7
	D .0	-1.0	.5	2.0	2.0	2.0		1.2	2.1	.7
	T 1.0	.0	2.0	2.5	2.0	2.5		2.1	2.5	.9
Link of Observation to Evaluation	A 5.0	-1.0	.5	1.5	1.0	1.0		.3	2.2	.6
	D 5.0	-1.0	2.0	2.0	1.5	2.5		1.0	2.6	1.0
Praise from Observation	A 2.0	-1.0	2.0	2.0	2.5	-1.0		1.1	2.0	1.1
	D 2.0	-1.0	2.0	2.0	2.0	-1.5		1.1	2.2	1.1
	T 2.0	-1.0	2.0	2.0	2.0	-.5		1.2	2.1	.9
oo Initiative in regard to a teaching practice	A 4.0	-1.0	2.0	2.5	2.0	1.0	-2.0	.5	2.6	1.0
	D 4.0	-1.0	2.0	2.0	2.0	1.0	-2.5	.5	2.8	1.0
	T 2.0	-1.0	1.5	2.0	2.5	-2.0		.8	2.6	.7

TABLE 7-H GROUP CHARACTERISTICS AND VIEWS

WHO ANSWERED:	ADMINISTRATORS	DEPARTMENT HEAD	TEACHERS
Average Age	35.50	38.64	37.09
%Female	50.00	27.27	58.00
%American Native, Indian	.00	.00	2.64
%Asian-American	.00	.00	.00
%Black, Negro	.00	.00	.00
%Mexican-American, Hispanic	.00	.00	.00
%White	100.00	100.00	95.36
%Who Are Teachers	.00	.00	100.00
%Who Are Dept. Heads	.00	100.00	.00
Average Years in Position	3.50	8.55	12.00
Average Years in This School	14.00	13.00	8.77
Average Activities Scale Score (5 = least active, 15 = most active	15.00	12.09	11.18
%Who Spend Discretionary Time:			
In a faculty lounge	.00	45.45	23.21
In a faculty lunchroom	.00	18.18	12.50
In a preparation room	.00	36.36	71.43
In the department office	.00	90.91	67.86
In the school office	100.00	27.27	14.29
In an unused classroom	.00	9.09	44.64
In the schools hallways	50.00	9.09	10.71
In the school library	.00	9.09	7.14
In other places	50.00	18.18	19.64
Average Assessment of Observation of Teachers (7 = least favorable, 35 = most favorable)	27.00	25.70	25.13
Average Assessment of Evaluation of Teachers (4 = least favorable, 28 = most favorable)	15.00	16.30	14.82

TABLE B-C: RESPONDENTS' ASSESSMENTS OF OBSERVATION

Item range: 1=strongly disagree, 2=disagree, 3=not sure, 4=agree, 5=strongly agree.

ASSESSMENTS OF OBSERVATION PRACTICES	Admins	D.Heads	Teachers
1. In my school, feedback on teaching is concrete, specific.	4.5	3.6	3.7
2. In my school, feedback on teaching can be used to improve teaching.	5.0	4.1	4.0
3. In my school, teachers ignore feedback on their teaching.	2.0	2.2	2.6
4. When teachers use the feedback they receive, their teaching improves and students do better.	4.5	3.4	3.5
5. Being observed and receiving feedback is a comfortable and welcome experience for teachers in this school.	4.0	3.9	3.4
6. In this school, observation of teaching is an empty, useless ritual.	1.0	1.7	2.1
7. In this school, observation of teachers is a valuable professional tool.	4.5	4.1	3.7
Mean scale score (scale range = 7-35): (Items 3 and 6 reversed for scale score.)	31.5	27.2	25.6

ASSESSMENTS OF THOSE WHO OBSERVE TEACHERS	Admins	D.Heads	Teachers
1. Those who observe teachers in this school strive to help teachers improve their teaching.	4.5	4.3	3.9
2. Those who observe teachers in this school strive to provide fair and valid evaluations of teachers.	5.0	4.2	4.1
3. Those who observe teachers in this school make their observation criteria clear.	4.5	3.9	3.6
4. Those who observe teachers in this school use fair, understandable standards for evaluating teaching.	3.0	4.0	3.8
Mean scale score (scale range = 4-20)	17.0	16.4	15.5

TABLE 6-1 4 A NORMAL GROUP'S VIEWS OF OBSERVATIONS OF TEACHERS

WHO ANSWERED: TEACHERS
% of All Respondents 91%

ABOUT WHOM:	ADMINISTRATORS	DEPARTMENT HEAD	TEACHERS
Average Consensus	.57	.56	.39
Average Intensity	1.84	1.87	1.61
Average Tendency	.88	.35	.08
KEY: Tolerable Behavior	AAAAAAAA	DDDDDDDC	TTTTTTTT
Most approved Behavior	A	D	T

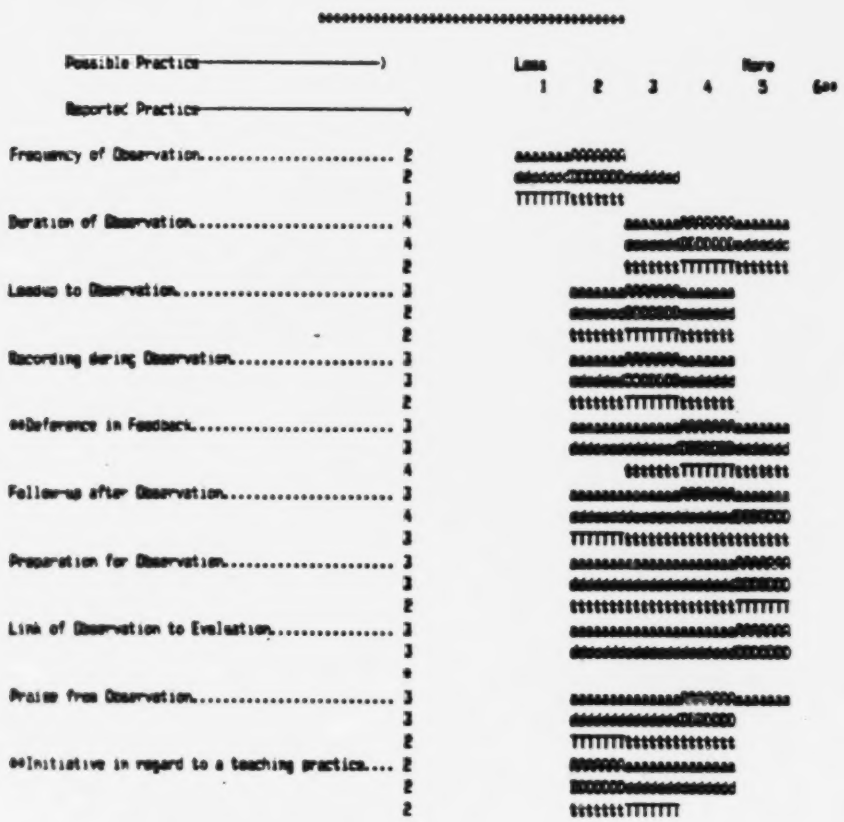

TABLE 8-IS 4 A NORMAL GROUP'S VIEWS OF OBSERVATIONS OF TEACHERS

WHO ANSWERED: TEACHERS
% of All Respondents 91%

RESULT WHEN:	ADMINISTRATORS	DEPARTMENT HEAD	TEACHERS
Average Consensus (0,1)	.57	.56	.39
Average Intensity (0,3)	1.84	1.87	1.61
Average Tendency (-3,+3)	.28	.25	.08
KEY:	A	D	T

Possible Practice → / Reported Practice ↓		Less 1	2	3	4	5	More 6++	TEN	INT	CON
Frequency of Observation	A	1.5	.5	.7	-.3	-1.8	-2.3		-.8	2.3	.6
	D	1.7	.4	1.1	.1	-1.4	-1.9		-.5	2.3	.5
	T	1.5	.7	.6	-.2	-1.3	-1.6		-.6	2.1	.5
Duration of Observation	A	3.0	-2.1	-1.4	.4	1.1	1.1		-.2	2.4	.7
	D	4.0	-1.9	-1.3	.5	1.3	1.2		-.1	2.3	.7
	T	2.4	-1.6	-.9	.6	.7	.4		-.2	2.2	.5
Lead-in to Observation	A	2.5	-.6	1.2	1.6	.5	-1.3		.4	2.0	.6
	D	2.4	-.3	1.3	1.5	.4	-1.2		.5	2.0	.5
	T	2.4	-.7	.4	1.1	.6	-.6		.2	1.9	.4
Recording during Observation	A	2.0	-1.2	1.0	1.5	1.2	-.5		.5	1.8	.6
	D	2.0	-1.1	1.1	1.6	1.2	-.6		.5	1.8	.7
	T	1.9	-.4	.8	.9	.5	-.8		.3	1.6	.5
**Reference in Feedback	A	3.3	-1.1	.1	1.7	2.0	1.6	-2.4	.4	2.3	.8
	D	3.3	-1.1	.0	1.7	2.0	1.7	-2.3	.5	2.4	.8
	T	2.7	-1.5	-.7	.8	1.2	1.0	-1.5	.0	2.1	.5
Follow-up after Observation	A	3.2	-2.0	1.4	1.1	1.6	1.6		1.0	2.3	.8
	D	3.6	-2.1	1.4	1.2	1.7	1.7		1.0	2.4	.9
	T	2.6	-1.2	1.0	.4	.3	.3		.3	2.1	.5
Preparation for Observation	A	2.9	-2.0	.7	1.7	.5	2.1		.8	2.2	.8
	D	3.0	-2.0	.9	1.7	.6	2.2		.9	2.3	.8
	T	1.7	-1.3	.5	.9	.1	1.5		.5	1.9	.6
Link of Observation to Evaluation	A	3.4	-2.4	1.1	1.2	.9	1.5		.7	2.3	.8
	D	3.0	-2.4	1.3	1.3	1.0	1.5		.7	2.4	.8
Praise from Observation	A	3.1	-2.4	2.2	2.4	2.6	.0		1.2	2.0	.9
	D	3.3	-2.4	2.2	2.4	2.6	-.1		1.2	2.0	.9
	T	2.0	-1.9	1.9	1.8	1.7	-.2		.9	2.4	.7
**Initiative in regard to a teaching practice	A	2.2	-1.8	1.8	1.6	1.1	-.9	-2.2	.0	2.3	.8
	D	2.3	-1.8	1.9	1.8	1.2	-.9	-2.3	.0	2.4	.8
	T	2.4	-1.6	1.4	1.6	-.1	-1.9		-.1	2.2	.7

TABLE B-1 3 A WORKING GROUP'S VIEWS OF OBSERVATIONS OF TEACHERS

WHO ANSWERED: DEPARTMENT HEAD
% of All Respondents 7%

ABOUT WHOM:	ADMINISTRATORS	DEPARTMENT HEADS	TEACHERS
Average Consensus	.74	.72	.64
Average Intensity	1.82	1.89	1.77
Average Tendency	.32	.34	.11
KEY: Tolerable Behavior	aaaaaaaa	bbbbbbbb	tttttttt
Most approved Behavior	A	B	T

Possible Practice ——————————)

Reported Practice ——————————v

		Less 1	2	3	4	5	More 6**
Frequency of Observation	1	AAAAAAAaaaaaaa					
	1	BBBBBBBbbbbbbb					
	1	TTTTTTT					
Duration of Observation	4				aaaaaaaAAAAAAAaaaaaaa		
	4					BBBBBBBbbbbbbb	
	4				tttttttTTTTTTTttttttt		
Leadup to Observation	3	aaaaaaaAAAAAAAaaaaaaaaaaaaaa					
	3	aaaaaaaBBBBBBBaaaaaaaaaaaaaa					
	4		tttttttTTTTTTTttttttt				
Recording during Observation	3		aaaaaaaAAAAAAAaaaaaaa				
	3		aaaaaaaBBBBBBBaaaaaaa				
	3		tttttttTTTTTTTttttttt				
**Deference in Feedback	3		aaaaaaaAAAAAAAaaaaaaaaaaaaaa				
	3		aaaaaaaBBBBBBBaaaaaaaaaaaaaa				
	4		tttttttTTTTTTTtttttttttttttt				
Follow-up after Observation	4		aaaaaaaaaaaaaaAAAAAAAaaaaaaa				
	4		aaaaaaaaaaaaaaBBBBBBBaaaaaaa				
	3		tttttttttttttttTTTTTTTttttttt				
Preparation for Observation	3		aaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaAAAAAAA				
	3		aaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaBBBBBBB				
	3		tttttttttttttttttttttttTTTTTTT				
Link of Observation to Evaluation	4		aaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaAAAAAAA				
	4		aaaaaaaBBBBBBBaaaaaaaaaaaaaa				
	0						
Praise from Observation	3		aaaaaaaaaaaaaaAAAAAAA				
	3		aaaaaaaaaaaaaaBBBBBBB				
	2		TTTTTTTttttttttttttt				
**Initiative in regard to a teaching practice	3		aaaaaaaAAAAAAAaaaaaaa				
	3		aaaaaaaBBBBBBBaaaaaaa				
	2		tttttttTTTTTTTttttttt				

TABLE 6-15 3 A NORMAL GROUP'S VIEWS OF OBSERVATIONS OF TEACHERS

GROUP RANKED:	DEPARTMENT HEAD
% of All Respondents	7%

ABOUT WHOM:	ADMINISTRATORS	DEPARTMENT HEAD	TEACHERS
Average Consensus (0,1)	.74	.72	.64
Average Intensity (0,3)	1.82	1.89	1.77
Average Tendency (-3,+3)	.32	.34	.11
KEY:	A	D	T

oooooooooooooooooooooooooooooooooooooooooooooooo

Possible Practice → / Observed Practice ↓		Less 1	2	3	4	5	More 6oo	TEN	INT	CON
Frequency of Observation	A 1.3	1.1	.0	-1.4	-2.6	-2.8		-1.1	2.5	.7
	D 1.3	1.0	.6	-1.2	-2.6	-2.9		-1.0	2.6	.6
	T 1.0	1.2	-.4	-1.9	-2.7	-2.9		-1.2	2.6	.7
Duration of Observation	A 2.6	-2.7	-2.2	.0	1.8	1.4		-.3	2.6	.9
	D 4.1	-2.7	-2.2	-.1	1.8	1.6		-.3	2.6	.9
	T 2.5	-2.6	-2.1	.1	1.7	1.0		-.4	2.4	.9
Lead-up to Observation	A 2.6	.6	1.8	1.4	.1	-1.3		.7	1.9	.8
	D 2.6	.9	1.8	1.6	.1	-1.3		.8	1.9	.8
	T 2.7	-.9	.6	1.3	.7	-.7		.4	1.9	.5
Recording during Observation	A 2.6	-1.3	.1	1.7	1.0	-.4		.3	1.7	.7
	D 2.6	-1.7	.1	1.7	1.1	-.4		.3	1.8	.7
	T 2.0	-.6	.9	1.3	.6	-.9		.6	1.7	.6
oo Reference in Feedback	A 2.0	-.5	1.4	2.1	1.8	1.6	-2.8	.8	2.4	.9
	D 2.0	-.5	1.4	2.1	1.8	1.4	-2.8	.9	2.4	.9
	T 2.5	-1.0	.4	1.6	1.5	1.5	-2.5	.5	2.3	.7
Follow-up after Observation	A 4.0	-2.3	1.2	1.1	2.2	2.2		1.2	2.4	1.0
	D 4.4	-2.3	1.3	1.0	2.3	2.2		1.2	2.5	1.0
	T 2.5	-1.8	1.2	1.1	1.6	1.0		1.0	2.2	.8
Preparation for Observation	A 2.6	-1.6	.6	1.6	1.0	2.0		.9	2.0	.9
	D 3.4	-1.6	.6	1.9	1.1	2.1		1.1	2.1	.9
	T 2.0	-1.6	1.0	1.6	.8	1.9		1.0	2.0	.9
Link of Observation to Evaluation	A 2.6	-2.7	1.0	1.6	1.7	2.2		1.0	2.5	1.0
	D 2.7	-2.7	1.3	1.9	1.8	1.6		1.0	2.6	1.0
Praise from Observation	A 2.0	-2.6	2.4	2.4	2.6	-.7		1.2	2.8	1.1
	D 2.9	-2.6	2.4	2.4	2.6	-.8		1.2	2.9	1.1
	T 2.0	-2.4	2.6	2.0	1.6	-1.0		.9	2.8	.9
oo Initiative in regard to a teaching practice	A 2.5	-2.1	1.7	1.9	1.8	-.1	-2.3	.3	2.3	.9
	D 2.5	-2.0	1.9	2.0	1.4	-.2	-2.2	.3	2.3	.9
	T 2.0	-1.8	1.8	1.9	.5	-2.0		.2	2.4	.9

TABLE 5-I 2 A NOMINAL GROUP'S VIEWS OF OBSERVATIONS OF TEACHERS

WHO RANKED:
% of All Respondents

ADMINISTRATORS
15

ABOUT WHOM:	ADMINISTRATORS	DEPARTMENT HEAD	TEACHERS
Average Consensus	.68	.73	.59
Average Intensity	2.23	2.28	2.18
Average Tendency	1.04	1.11	1.14
KEY: Tolerable Behavior	aaaaaaaa	dddddddd	tttttttt
Most approved Behavior	A	D	T

Possible Practice ——————)

Reported Practice ——————v

		Less 1	2	3	4	More 5	6++
Frequency of Observation	2	aaaaaaaAAAAAAaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaa					
	3	ddddddDDDDDDddddddddddddddddddd					
	0	TTTTTTTttttttttttttttttttttttttttttt					
Duration of Observation	3					aaaaaaaaaaaaaAAAAAAA	
	3					ddddddddddddDDDDDDD	
	0					ttttttttttttttTTTTTTT	
Lead-up to Observation	0	aaaaaaaaaaaaaAAAAAAaaaaaaa					
	0	ddddddddddddDDDDDDddddddd					
	0	ttttttttttttttTTTTTTttttttt					
Recording during Observation	0		aaaaaaaaaaaaaAAAAAAaaaaaaa				
	0	ddddddddddddddddDDDDDDddddddd					
	0	ttttttttttttttttttTTTTTTttttttt					
**Reference in Feedback	0	aaaaaaaaaaaaaAAAAAAaaaaaaaaaaaa					
	0	ddddddddddddddddDDDDDDddddddddd					
	0	ttttttttttttttttTTTTTTttttttttttt					
Follow-up after Observation	0			aaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaAAAAAAA			
	0			ddddddddddddddddddDDDDDDD			
	0			TTTTTTTttttttttttttttttttttt			
Preparation for Observation	0			aaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaAAAAAAA			
	0			ddddddddddddddddddDDDDDDD			
	0			ttttttttttttttttttttTTTTTTT			
Link of Observation to Evaluation	0			aaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaAAAAAAA			
	0			ddddddddddddddddddDDDDDDD			
	*						
Praise from Observation	0		aaaaaaaAAAAAAaaaaaaaaaaaaaaa				
	0		ddddddDDDDDDddddddddddddddddd				
	0		ttttttTTTTTTttttttttttttttttt				
**Initiative in regard to a teaching practice	0		aaaaaaaaaaaaaAAAAAAaaaaaaa				
	0		ddddddDDDDDDddddddddddddddd				
	0		TTTTTTttttttttttttttt				

TABLE B-15 2 A WORKING GROUP'S VIEWS OF OBSERVATIONS OF TEACHERS

WHO ANSWERED: ADMINISTRATORS
% of All Respondents N

ABOUT WHOM:	ADMINISTRATORS	DEPARTMENT HEAD	TEACHERS
Average Consensus (0,1)	.60	.73	.59
Average Intensity (0,3)	2.23	2.00	2.18
Average Tendency (-3,+3)	1.84	1.11	1.14
KEY:	A	D	T

Possible Practice → / Reported Practice ↓		Less 1	2	3	4	More 5	6++	TEN	INT	CON
Frequency of Observation	A 2.0	.5	1.0	.0	.0	.0		.2	2.5	-.2
	D 2.0	.5	1.0	.0	.0	.0		.2	2.5	-.2
	T .0	2.0	2.0	1.0	.0	.0		.9	2.7	-.1
Duration of Observation	A 2.0	-1.0	-2.0	1.0	2.5	3.0		.3	2.9	.8
	D 2.0	-2.5	-2.0	1.0	2.5	3.0		.4	2.8	.8
	T .0	-2.5	-2.0	.0	2.0	3.0		.1	2.4	.9
Leading to Observation	A .0	.0	2.0	2.5	2.0	-2.5		.9	2.3	.8
	D .0	1.5	2.0	2.5	.0	-2.5		.8	2.2	.8
	T .0	.0	1.5	2.5	1.5	-1.0		.9	2.2	.3
Recording during Observation	A .0	-1.0	1.5	2.5	3.0	.5		1.4	2.2	.7
	D .0	.0	1.5	2.5	3.0	.5		1.6	2.0	.9
	T .0	1.0	1.5	2.0	2.5	.5		1.5	2.0	.7
Reference in Feedback	A .0	.5	2.0	2.5	2.5	2.5	-1.5	1.5	2.6	.6
	D .0	2.0	2.0	2.5	3.0	2.5	-1.5	1.8	2.6	.8
	T .0	.5	2.0	2.5	2.5	2.5	-1.5	1.4	2.5	.5
Follow-up after Observation	A .0	-2.0	2.0	2.0	2.5	3.0		1.7	2.7	.9
	D .0	-2.0	2.0	2.0	2.5	3.0		1.7	2.7	.9
	T .0	-2.0	2.5	2.5	2.5	2.5		1.6	2.7	.9
Preparation for Observation	A .0	-2.5	1.0	2.5	1.0	3.0		1.1	2.4	1.1
	D .0	-2.5	1.0	2.5	1.0	3.0		1.1	2.4	1.1
	T .0	-2.5	1.0	2.5	1.5	3.0		1.2	2.4	1.0
Link of Observation to Evaluation	A .0	-3.0	1.0	2.5	2.5	3.0		1.3	2.8	1.1
	D .0	-3.0	1.0	2.5	2.5	3.0		1.3	2.8	1.1
Praise from Observation	A .0	-2.0	2.5	3.0	3.0	2.5		2.0	3.0	1.1
	D .0	-2.0	2.5	3.0	3.0	2.5		2.0	3.1	1.1
	T .0	-1.5	2.5	3.0	3.0	2.0		1.9	2.8	.8
Initiative in regard to a teaching practice	A .0	-2.5	2.5	2.5	3.0	1.0	-2.0	.7	2.6	1.0
	D .0	-2.5	2.5	3.0	3.0	1.0	-2.0	.8	2.7	1.0
	T .0	-2.0	3.0	3.0	2.0	-2.0		.8	2.7	.9

TABLE B-4H GROUP CHARACTERISTICS AND VIEWS

WHO RESPONDED:	ADMINISTRATORS	DEPARTMENT HEAD	TEACHERS
Average Age	49.50	48.78	38.33
%Female	.00	11.11	43.29
%American Native, Indian	50.00	.00	.82
%Asian-American	.00	.00	1.64
%Black, Negro	.00	.00	.00
%Mexican-American, Hispanic	.00	.00	.82
%White	50.00	100.00	96.72
%Who Are Teachers	.00	.00	100.00
%Who Are Dept. Heads	.00	100.00	.00
Average Years in Position	13.00	13.11	12.42
Average Years in This School	7.00	12.11	8.54
Average Activities Scale Score (0 = least active, 15 = most active	13.00	12.44	10.65
%Who Spend Discretionary Time:			
In a faculty lounge	.00	11.11	13.49
In a faculty lunchroom	.00	.00	6.35
In a preparation room	.00	44.44	55.35
In the department office	.00	100.00	81.75
In the school office	100.00	.00	11.90
In an unused classroom	.00	11.11	27.78
In the schools hallways	100.00	33.33	3.97
In the school library	50.00	11.11	10.32
In other places	50.00	22.22	39.68
Average Assessment of Observation of Teachers (7 = least favorable, 35 = most favorable)	31.50	27.22	25.73
Average Assessment of Evaluation of Teachers (4 = least favorable, 20 = most favorable)	17.00	16.44	15.44

Chapter 6
LEADERSHIP BY TEACHERS
Instrumental Status Differences Among Teachers

Political, professional, and scientific attention recently have converged with uncustomary specificity upon the quality of teachers and teaching. As some research on schools and teaching gains prominence in various initiatives, other research on implementation and training reveal that the systematic advancement of teaching is a demanding task. Teachers are called upon to provide added leadership and support. While the present initiatives toward leadership by teachers are diverse, all of them call for some teachers to influence the classroom performance of others.

I. THE CALL FOR LEADERSHIP BY TEACHERS

The mentor teacher, master teacher, and career ladder initiatives formally link titles, assignments, and pay to past performance and to the future improvement of schools and teaching. Merit pay makes the same linkage, if less overtly. Rewards for performance in the past have necessary implications for the future. Unless the criteria and recipients of merit pay are kept secret (a move which is not likely to buttress the credibility of the procedure), then "merit pay recipient" is an active position. If merit pay is to mark merit, the recipient must join in the judgement that the recipient's performance is superior to that of some other teachers and thus is worthy of emulation. In a public profession, the merit pay recipient must be ready to say, if asked, how her performance is superior and thus might be emulated.

Legislatures and school districts are not alone in the attempt to stimulate leadership by teachers. The American Federation of Teachers has been sponsoring and training "Teacher-Research Linkers"--teachers who are selected by the AFT for training in recent research on schools and teaching and who are expected then to make that research available to other teachers through training and consulting. While the AFT does not emphasize the status implications of the Teacher-Research Linker initiative, it employs status-building tactics. It selects teachers, provides them a title, and provides them sponsorship and support which is not provided to other teachers. By training and opportunities to deal more close with researchers, it

attempts to increase the expert and referent influence of the teachers selected. If the effort does not ultimately influence teachers' behavior in the classroom, it has no use.

Yet other proposals adopt a more situational view which emphasizes the skills or processes of leadership rather than the persons who engage in that leadership. Attempts to promote peer observation and advisement among teachers are in this category. These initiatives emphasize reciprocity among teachers and leadership as a set of practices or processes. That softens but does not remove the implication that teachers will influence each other in accordance with their skill in leadership and in teaching.

While these initiatives vary considerably in their sponsorship, form, and description, they share a common feature. All of them attempt to produce instrumental status differences among teachers. By virtue of formal position, training, situational role, or skill with a practice, teachers are expected to influence each other's behavior in the classroom.

A. Teacher Leadership and School Organization.

Teachers' exerting appreciable influence on each other's behavior in the classroom will be a substantial departure from present arrangements in many schools and districts. The initiatives toward leadership by teachers face common conditions, by which they may be shaped.

Teachers tend to work in isolation. Scheduling alone restricts considerably their opportunity for mutual examination of teaching in the classroom. In some schools, the isolation of teachers is compounded by informal norms of privacy and autonomy which emphasize the unique character of each teacher's performance and call for teachers to be left pretty much alone. Current supervision and evaluation of teachers seldom provide models by which close examination of teaching could be regarded as fruitful or supportive.

Schools are being recognized as loosely coupled to their districts; some virtue is being found in that property. Such a view provides no reason to suppose that schools are more tightly coupled with other external organizations such as state legislatures, state departments of education, professional associations, or teachers' unions than with districts. All the proponents of leadership by teachers will have to deal with schools as largely independent organizations which may respond little or unpredictably to proponents' initiatives.

Principals can exert considerable influence on patterns of interaction in the school. Probably, all the proponents of

leadership by teachers will have to reconcile leadership by teachers with leadership by principals. All the proponents of leadership by teachers will have to speak to the skills and processes by which teachers exert leadership with each other. In light of these common conditions, one may ask whether the teacher leadership initiatives which succeed will remain as different as their current descriptions suggest.

Regardless of origin, the initiatives toward leadership by teachers bear similar eventual implications. Initiatives which begin by assigning pay, titles, or duties to teacher leaders will have to help those teachers earn their positions in daily interaction with other teachers. Initiatives which bypass the question of pay, titles, and assignments to concentrate on processes and skills of leadership will face the results of their success. If many teachers are brought into close interaction about teaching, they will have their first substantial opportunity to take each other's measures. It is likely that some teachers will emerge as more skillful teachers or more skillful leaders than others. If such interaction among teachers is sustained, instrumental status differences are likely to emerge among them. Well-founded and visible differences in teachers' skill and contribution are likely to require recognition and confirmation. For the same reasons that they are taken in some initiatives as appropriate forms for stimulating leadership, differences in assignments, titles, and pay among teachers are likely to emerge as appropriate forms for recognizing that leadership when it has been stimulated in some other way.

It appears that improvements in schools and teaching on the scale presently being called for will require an extended structure of school leadership and improvement support which involves both principals and teachers. While the current initiatives toward leadership by teachers provide somewhat different places to start, they are likely to face much the same issues and problems over the near term. All raise the question, What makes leadership by teachers possible, appropriate, and valuable?

B. Norms, Status, and Leadership.

One approach to the question is provided by viewing schools as social organizations defined partly by their formal structure and partly by their informal norms for faculty interaction. (See Chapter 3). From the perspective of norm and role theory, the variably shared and enforced expectations of a group may shape the behavior of its members (Gross, Mason, and McEachern, 1958; Jackson, 1966) These norms define a system of roles, which compose both a division of labor and a set of relations among those who hold positions in a school. While this informal social system can be influential, it cannot be either fully coherent or

closed. It serves a variety of goals and functions, which are not necessarily consistent in their implications for behavior. It contains a variety of groups, within which and across which the consistency and influence of expectations may vary. Slippery language admits a variety of interpretations of whatever expectations are held. Further, the social system of the school also is open to influence by other features of the school and by the school's environment. Inventive persons have opportunity and freedom within this system of influence, and they often use it.

1. Functions of Status. In the face of various centripetal forces working on the school, its participants achieve cooperation by the workings of status. For present purposes, "status" is defined by the set of norms which indicate who should assert and who should defer, when, where, how, and for what reasons. Status may come into play when persons have greater and lesser authority, responsibility, knowledge, skill, or rectitude. Status may come into play when persons have different authorities, responsibilities, kinds of knowledge, sources of skill, or virtues. Status may be ascribed to a position, and it may be achieved by the incumbent's performance. By asserting and deferring to status, the persons in an organization may achieve cooperation in the face of their own diversity and of the diversity of the demands upon them.

2. The Requirement of Reciprocity. Assertion and deference in status relations operate under a practical requirement--which sometimes also is a derived moral requirement--of reciprocity. One who asserts knowledge, skill, authority, or rectitude must then display it, and one who defers to that knowledge, skill, authority, or rectitude must then respond to it, or their partnership will fail in some respect. If a principal asserts and displays the responsibility and skill to make a schedule, and if teachers and students defer and respond to that performance, then the school's time and space can be organized. To the degree that any of the participants fail in their part of this accomplishment, the school is disorganized with regard to the movements of its members.

Both status and the requirement of reciprocity operate also in instrumental relations among teachers. A teacher who would coach another teacher must make some assertion, such as the capacity to take useful notes on a lesson. The teacher who is observed must defer in some way, as by listening to an account of the lesson. Otherwise, no meaningful instance of observation and feedback takes place. If the would-be coach does not then display the ability to make useful notes on a lesson and the teacher does not sometimes respond by behaving differently in the classroom, this coaching relation is fruitless. Much is required of both parties to the activity.

Two teachers who have seldom participated in such relations face a large and unfamilar task. Having seen each other teach rarely or not at all, they must worry about what they will discover about either or both of them. Having seldom or never talked about teaching which they both observed, they must learn to speak to each other in precise ways which could satisfy either's complex and subtle sense of teaching. Having little experience in speaking precisely to practice and consequence rather than to person and competence, they face some high risk of insulting each other. Having few or no models for this interaction, they are likely to hesitate for fear of insulting one another, and in that way fail to say much of practical use. Two teachers contemplating a rigorous mutual examination of their teaching simultaneously face heavy demands for unfamiliar skill and have little reason to suppose that the interaction could be so fruitful as to be worth the trouble. Their gaining a worthwhile relation will be a considerable achievement under good conditions.

3. Tasks and Risks of Leadership. Few schools provide good conditions for the formation of instrumental relations among teachers. Such interaction takes considerable time; that time is scarce in the usual school day. Close and mutual examination of teaching is a recent expectation for which most schools have not yet been organized. While teaching has been the object of considerable prescription, it has not been the subject of equally specific study; the present prominence of research on teaching practice may not conceal its recence, its limitations, or its uneven use in teacher education programs. If teachers see their practices as matters of personal philosophy and experience, they have been given reasons to do so. The typical introduction of new teachers to teaching would not give them reasons to change their minds (Nemser, in Shulman and Sykes, 1983). A solitary struggle first to survive in the classroom and then to attain some facility as a teacher is unlikely either to suggest that some aspects of teaching could be professional (collective) matters or to prepare a teacher for mutual examination of teaching practices.

Like teachers, principals have been overtaken by recent developments. While they are being pressed to improve supervision and evaluation, their practice to date seldom would have convinced teachers that being watched at work could be a useful, supportive, and helpful event. Apparently, the stronger teacher evaluation systems presently in use are capable of detecting apparent incompetence, but not of making the sorts of discriminations which a merit pay system, for example, would require (Wise et al., 1984). Such models are not likely to strike teachers as sources of professional support and recognition.

While leadership by teachers holds promise both for the teachers chosen as leaders and for the close support of

improvement in teaching, it also contains risks. Teachers placed in leadership roles such as mentor teacher, master teacher, merit pay recipient, or peer coach thereby incur an obligation to display concretely the knowledge and skills which their position asserts. In the absence of norms and routines for mutual examination of teaching and for mutual support of its improvement, they are left with a duty which they lack the means to fulfill. Where teacher evaluation procedures lack credibility with teachers, both the teachers chosen for merit pay and those who choose them are open to charges of favoritism. Where teachers seldom see each other teach, the merit pay recipient has no way to demonstrate that merit. Where schools' norms discourage close mutual scrutiny of teaching, the master teacher lacks the opportunity to earn her extra salt.

In attempting to highlight the requirements of leadership by teachers, this account has suggested that relatively few schools now meet them. However, the story contains no blame needing allocation. The present circumstances are not failures of the past. Rather, recent developments in education policy and research have created new circumstances, which might turn out to be either problems or opportunities, depending on how they are handled.

C. Describing and Projecting Leadership by Teachers.

Practical research on the new roles such as merit pay recipient, mentor teacher, master teacher, teacher-research linker, or coach for teachers appears to have two central tasks. One is to describe the present relations and practices among teachers; from variations in practice among schools, one might infer the practices which are possible in many schools. However, instructional leadership by teachers is relatively rare; limited variation provides limited cues. So, the other task is to estimate the conditions in which the new leadership roles may be established where they do not now exist. Norm and role theory's formulation of "norm" as shared and enforced expectations for specific acts in situations provides tools for both tasks.

First by qualitative methods (observation, in-depth interviews) involving a few subjects in the setting, the researcher attempts to identify dimensions of interaction which may define the new roles, their acceptance, and their utility. In the first year of the present research, case studies were made in five schools--three high schools in a large urban district and a high school and junior high school in a district serving a small city. The researchers used observations and interviews to identify dimensions of behavior which might govern the formation of professional relations among administrators, department heads, and teachers. These dimensions included the frequency of interaction, the duration of interaction, the degree of

negotiation about the focus and nature of the interaction, the concreteness of speech, and other aspects which seemed to define relations which were regarded as being professional, acceptable, polite and useful.

Then, survey methods are used to describe the prevailing expectations of a faculty or other group of interest. This study employed a theoretical and measurement model, the "Normative Return Potential" model, developed by Jackson (1966). By drawing on the qualitative work, each dimension of interaction can be represented by an ordered array of options for an actor's behavior in a specific situation, such as observing a lesson, providing feedback on that lesson, or planning a training session. In surveys, the members of the social system of interest are asked to make two judgements on each of the options for an actor's behavior. First, they indicate their degree of approval, indifference, or disapproval of each option for behavior. Second, they indicate which options for behavior best describe present practice. Responses are aggregated to build up a picture both of the present practice and of the expectations which apply to practices used and unused. The degrees of agreement and intensity in these expectations are found. Thus, for example, one may attempt to estimate the behavioral latitude which would be accorded, by teachers, to one who is regarded as a "master teacher."

II. SURVEY FINDINGS

Parts of the two surveys conducted during this study addressed leadership by teachers. In the first survey, teachers were compared with administrators and with department heads as observers and evaluators for teachers. That survey went into considerable detail, looking separately at nine dimensions of observation and evaluation. The second survey asked similar but more general questions about options for leadership by informally recognized master teachers and by department heads; about ways in which and conditions in which teachers cooperate; and about options for pay differentials among teachers.

The data set for these schools is asymmetrical. Case studies were made of three Big City schools (Schools 1, 2 and 3) in the first year. All three participated in the first survey of the second year. Of this group, only School 3 participated in the second survey. Complete data were collected for Schools 4 and 5, in Small City district. School 6, the second junior high school in Small City, and Schools 7 and 8, the large suburban high schools, were added in the second year and participated in both surveys. The size of the survey project precluded additional case studies for these schools. In discussing the second survey, then, Big City district is represented only by School 3. Case study information which might influence the interpretation of either survey are lacking for Schools 6, 7, and 8.

A. Observation and Evaluation by Teachers.

Teachers might lead each other by observation and evaluation of their work. The first survey, of observation and evaluation practices, was reported in Chapter 5. Teachers in Schools 4 and 5 in Small City district were more favorable toward active observation than teachers in the Big City schools (1-3); the remaining schools tended to fall between these two groups.

The prospects for observation by teachers appeared to be greatest in Schools 4 and 5 where, for several years preceding the study, the principals had exerted themselves to engage teachers in the rigorous examination and improvement of teaching. Both principals had devoted themselves to strengthening supervision in support of specific initiatives to improve teaching. Staff in these schools approved more than did the staffs of the other schools, of the more energetic and rigorous options for supervision offered in the first survey. Staff in these two schools reported that principals were actually employing those vigorous options, and they rated observation and evaluation more favorably than teachers in other schools.

In the three urban schools in which leadership by teachers was least approved and in which supervision by principals was

given the lowest ratings by teachers, principals had not undertaken similar efforts focused on instructional improvement and supervision in its support. The faculties of these schools most approved of supervision options less vigorous than in the two small-city schools. They reported that principals typically employed supervision options yet less vigorous than those which they most approved. In two of the Big City schools, no offered frequency for observation by teachers was approved by teachers.

In the first year's case study data, it appeared that the principals of Schools 4 and 5 schools had employed their authority to establish the observation-evaluation practices. These then were seen to have foundations in skill, knowledge, procedure, and mutual respect distinct from authority. The histories of these developments revealed specific and broadly relevant means by which the stringent requirement of reciprocity in these relations was met (see Chapter 4 or the Summary). Thus, it seems, the administrators modeled practices and relationships which came to be approved for department heads and teachers as well.

B. Leadership and Cooperation Among Teachers.

The second survey, of six schools, made a broader and shallower examination of a wide variety of professional interactions in the participating schools. The survey included five sets of items dealing with options for leadership by informally recognized master teachers and by department heads, with patterns of cooperation and mutual assistance among teachers, and with options for differential pay of teachers. The findings are presented in Tables D11 through D15 at the end of the chapter. The return rates for the second survey were:

School 3	97%
School 4	93%
School 5	70%
School 6	90%
School 7	44%
School 8	65%

The second survey's question format resembles the first survey's, but departs from it in two main respects. First, while respondents were asked to indicate their approval or disapproval for each of several options for behavior, those options were not designed to represent a distinct and specific dimension equivalent to the first survey's Frequency of Observation or Deference in Feedback. Rather, the behavior options sampled a variety of possibilities in a relatively broad domain, e.g., leadership by department heads. Second, and in keeping with the

first adjustment, respondents were not asked to select one behavior option from each series to indicate the actual practice in their school. Rather, they indicated the relative frequency of occurence of each option.

The presentation of the second survey's findings also departs from the first (see Table D11). In each table, mean item responses are shown first for all respondents to the survey and then for all respondents in each of the six schools. Since teachers are by far the largest group in every school, these means are dominated by their views. These scores are presented in the format of the original questionnaire, so that the text of items and response sets can be seen. Standard deviation scores are included along with the item means to provide a rough indication of the variability of responses within each school.

1. Teachers Regarded As Masters (Table D11). This series of nine behavior options starts by proposing to respondents that there are, in every school, informally recognized "master teachers." The issue is how they should deal with other teachers.

In the means for "All" respondents to the survey, the approval/disapproval scores ("DO YOU APPROVE?") suggest that a wide variety of activities by master teachers are acceptable to most members of the faculties and moderately to strongly approved by some. While mean approval scores well above +2.5 are found often for individual schools in these tables, and while the approval/disapproval response set for these items ranges down to -3, negative item response means are rare. A mean approval score of 1.0-1.5 probably conveys scant support for a practice.

By the reports of actual behavior in the schools ("DOES IT HAPPEN?"), informally recognized master teachers do operate in all of the schools "sometimes". Teachers nominate them (item 1). They give advice "when asked by another teacher" (item 2), are assigned to lead workshops (item 5) and circulate professional articles which they found useful (item 6). Generally, the more initiative proposed for the master teacher, the less the option is approved, and the less often the option is reported to actually occur. In most of the schools, the master teacher should not circulate a lesson plan (item 8), and this occurs rarely.

By the rough standard that the difference between the highest and lowest school means equals or exceeds one-half the standard deviation for all respondents in the study, most of these items reveal differences among the schools. Respondents in School 3, the only one of the three urban high schools included in the second survey, consistently are least approving of the options for master teachers. They give scant support (item 1) even for faculty members' suggesting that there are master teachers. Respondents at School 4, the Small City junior high in which the most active instructional leadership by administrators

was seen, consistently are among the most approving of activity by master teachers. Their favorable expectations stand out most strongly in regard to the items which bring the master teacher in closest contact with other teachers. In item 4, the principal asks the master teacher to meet regularly with an experienced teacher to advance that teacher's practice. In item 8, a master teacher put a copy of one of the master's lesson plans in other teachers' boxes with a comment on its apparent effect. It should be noted that in recent years the administrators in Schools 4 and 5 have stressed careful lesson planning by teachers.

Most of the activities by master teachers are reported to be rare in all the schools; the greater the initiative by the master teacher, the rarer they are. Again, respondents in School 4 tend to report the most activity by master teachers; a notable exception is the lesson plan item (item 8), where School 4 respondents are much more approving than respondents in other schools but do not stand out in reporting that such sharing actually occurs. The math and English departments, in which this school's examination of instruction first began and is most developed, employ sequences of units or "modules" which they had completed before this study began. By virtue of that effort, they might have come to approve more of sharing units, but not report high rates of that activity.

2. Leadership By Department Heads (Table D12). This series of six items considers the conduct of department heads. As for master teachers, the means for all respondents suggest that these faculties approve mildly of several kinds of leadership by department heads. Stronger approval is less uniform. Generally, department heads are expected to:

Deal with the administration so that teachers can concentrate on teaching (item 1).
Encourage teachers to attend appropriate training, conference, or workshop (item 2).

In most of the schools, respondents do not approve a department head's calling in a district supervisor to work with a teacher (item 3).

School 3 again stands out in approving least of initiatives by department heads. Schools 4, 5, and 8 most often give the higher approval ratings for activities by department heads, including:

The department head suggests specific ways a teacher could improve his or her teaching.
The department head asks the department members to meet once a month, after hours, to study some options for teaching.

The department head uses a department meeting to deliver a workshop on some teaching methods.

However, given the rarity of negative means, these scores ought to be interpreted more as toleration than active approval.

Schools 3 and 6 approve less than the other schools of the department head's suggesting specific ways a teacher could improve his teaching. This is reported to occur most frequently in Schools 7 and 8, the two large suburban schools in which department heads are said to bear substantial responsibilities. Schools 3 and 7 approve less than other schools of a department head's calling a meeting to study teaching after school and of the department head's delivering a workshop on some teaching methods.

School 3's reports of the actual practice of department heads do not depart so consistently from reported practice in the other schools. The more active options for leadership by department heads--suggesting specific ways a teacher could improve, asking department members to participate in after-hours study groups, and using department meetings to deliver workshops on some aspect of teaching--are reported to occur rarely in most of the schools. Overall, School 8's department heads are most active.

3. Teachers Work Together (Table D13). This series of twelve items describes a variety of ways in which teachers might work together, ranging from talking about teaching in department meetings (item 1) to reading and commenting on each other's materials and tests (item 3) to noticing and praising each other's work (item 11).

Six of the options are moderately approved in most of the schools (the "All respondents" item means range from 2.2-2.4):

A new teacher asks an experienced teacher for advice.
Teachers discuss how best to handle a particular kind of event in their classrooms.
Teachers recommend books, articles, or materials to each other.
An experienced teacher asks another experienced teacher for advice about teaching.
Noticing that s/he seems distressed, one teacher asks another teacher whether s/he can help.
Teachers notice and praise each other's work.

These scores seem to call into question the generalization, which was accepted earlier in this chapter, that strong norms of autonomy and isolation characterize many schools.

With all respondents' means of 2.0, a second set of items is weakly approved:

Teachers talk about teaching in their department meetings.
A teacher recommends a specific teaching technique to another teacher.
Teachers socialize on breaks or after work.

While school approval means well above +2.5 are seen often in these tables, and while the disapproval response options for these items range down to -3, negative means are rare. With this in mind, it appears that there is little support for the options:

Two teachers get together for three or four minutes each morning to share their teaching plans for the day.
Teachers read and comment on each other's course materials and tests.

It may be noted that these two items bring teachers together more specifically than most of the other options. In tables in Chapter 5 on observation, where the options for behavior were much more specific and situational, negative item means appear frequently. Generally, those more concrete options are less approved than the more general possibilities offered here. It appears to be easier to approve of "professional interaction" when its character and requirements are less clear.

The means for "DOES IT HAPPEN?" suggest that many teachers replied "sometimes" or "often" to many of these items. While the means for all respondents and for schools occasionally drop below 2.0, which corresponds to "sometimes," there are only two instances in which they rise to or above 3.0, corresponding to "often." Actual practice was reported differently in the first survey; a direct comparison of reported frequencies for those more specific options with these general options can't be made. A cautious assumption would be that the more general items facilitate higher rates of reported occurrence in much the same way that they facilitate higher approval scores.

School 3's faculty again is least approving overall. Item means for the other schools are similar in most cases. Exceptions are that School 6's faculty more often talk about teaching in department meetings and more often socialize on breaks or after work. Most of the options for teachers' working together are reported to be more common than either leadership by master teachers or leadership by department heads.

4. Considerations in Teachers' Cooperation (Table D14). This set of 23 items began with a challenging but unspecified invitation:

> You and another member of your faculty have been asked to share your ideas and methods for teaching, to assemble the best methods that the two of you can come up with, and to use those methods and techniques well in your work. You will have some choice about the person with whom you are to work. Provided this much information, are you likely to agree to work with another in this way?

In most of the schools, some sizeable minority of the faculty responded that they "definitely would." School 3's faculty are least enthusiastic.

Respondents then were asked to assume that they do work with another as proposed. They were presented 21 conditions or characteristics of their work with another member of the faculty, and were asked to rate the relative importance of these factors to the success of their partnership. They used the response set

"Not Important 1 2 3 4 5 Very Important"

to make their replies. By the item means for all respondents, the 21 conditions or characteristics of cooperation can be placed in four ranks.

All Respondents Rank Factors Bearing on Cooperation.

Item means 4.4 and above:

The two of you already know and trust each other.
Both of you are good teachers.
If things aren't going well, each of you feels free to say so and why.
The two of you find an adequate place to work together.
Each of you takes the initiative in suggesting ideas and options to the other.
The two of you know, or learn, how to criticize a practice without criticizing each other.
Each of you does the part of the work that s/he can do best.

Item means 4.0-4.2:

You work together often, e.g., once or twice a week instead of once a month.
The two of you focus in on one or a few methods of teaching at a time.
The two of you are given a free class period to work together.
The two of you get down to the very specific and concrete aspects of each teaching method that you explore.
Each of you seeks an honest, professional exchange, even at some risk to friendship.
Each of you gives as much as s/he asks for.

Item means 3.6-4.0:

You work together routinely, e.g., every Wednesday morning or every other Tuesday, instead of whenever it's handy.
You work together over an extended period, e.g., two or three semesters or years rather than two or three weeks or months.
To avoid misunderstanding, the two of you agree in advance on how you will treat each other.
The two of you already have shared terms for describing and analyzing teaching.
One or both of you are familiar with the literature on teaching.
The two of you already have, or come to share, similar philosophies or theories of teaching.

Item means 2.5 and 3.0:

The two of you also socialize outside school.
Your colleagues in the school say that they admire educators who work together.

Ratings Which Distinguish Schools

By the test that the difference between the highest and lowest school means equals or exceeds one-half the standard deviation for all respondents, eleven of the items distinguish schools. These items, with comments on the schools involved in the largest differences, are:

To avoid misunderstandings, the two of you agree in advance on how you will treat each other. (Most important to School 4).
If things aren't going well, each of you feels free to say so and why. (Least important to School 3.)
The two of you have shared terms for describing and analyzing teaching. (Most important to Schools 4 and 6.)
One or both of you are familiar with the literature on teaching. (Most important to Schools 4, 5, and 6.)
The two of you are given a free class period to work together. (Most important to School 4, least to School 3.)
The two of you get down to the very specific and concrete aspects of each teaching method that you explore. (Most important to Schools 4 and 5.)
Each of you takes the initiative in suggesting ideas and options to the other. (Least important to School 3, most to 8.)
The two of you know, or learn, how to criticize a practice without criticizing each other. (School 4's mean is the highest in the table.)
Each of you seeks an honest, professional exchange, even at some risk to friendship. (Most important to School 4.)
Each of you gives as much as s/he asks for. (School 3 cares least; Schools 4 and 5 care most.)

Your colleagues in the school say that they admire educators who work together. (School 5 cares most.)

5. Reactions to Options for Differential Pay (Table D15). Respondents were asked their reactions (strongly oppose to strongly support) to seven possibilities for differential pay among teachers. Years of service and academic degrees or course credits--the current bases for differentials in most systems--were most strongly supported in all the schools. These are the only items for which the means show that some substantial minority used the response "strongly support." Merit pay on the basis of standard tests for each course was opposed most strongly by the group of all respondents, but the school means are not extreme. Schools 4, 5, and 6 are least disapproving of this option.

For the options of merit pay based on administrators' recommendations, merit pay based on observation by qualified persons from outside the school, and career ladders, the mean response for all respondents matched the response category "don't know". Schools 4 and 8 were more supportive than other schools of merit pay nominations by administrators on the basis of their present evaluation procedures, but these are not strong shows of support. They and other faculties were more likely to support merit pay when nomination by administrators was specified to occur "on the basis of thorough and skillful observation of (teachers') work in the classroom." Schools 4 and 5 approve most, and School 7 least, of the career ladder option.

III. CONCLUSION

One way to think about these findings is to compare them with two extreme images of cooperation among and leadership by teachers. In one image, teachers arrive at school in the morning, work in their rooms through the day, and leave the school in the afternoon having had few or no dealings with other teachers, and particularly not about teaching. They do their own work, by themselves. They like it that way. They don't want advice, assistance, or leadership from other teachers. They frown upon the idea. They hold a conception of teaching as a personal activity, to which they should be left.

In another image, teachers are often found together, talking about and working on teaching. They seek each other's advice and assistance. They share tasks such as writing tests. They watch each other teach--for the fun of it, for the use of it, and for the recognition and assistance which they get from it. They admire the attainments of their colleagues. They recognize and value masters in their midst, drawing upon them to advance their own work. They hold a conception of teaching as a collective undertaking, in which they engage together.

These extremes mark a complex continuum comprising many differences in perspectives, expectations, relations, exchanges, and habits. As they show in their expectations and reports of actual practice, the faculties in this study match neither extreme. They approve of a variety of professional exchanges--weakly or moderately in most cases. They report engaging in those exchanges--"sometimes" is a characteristic frequency. They see and use leaders in their ranks--but grant them little initiative. On the complex continuum suggested above, they lie considerably nearer the conception of teaching as a personal activity than the conception of teaching as a collective activity.

But that is not by clear choice. It is difficult to believe that the faculties of these schools have been buffaloed, by some sense that prominent others desire "professional interaction," into concealing their disapproval of such exchanges. Uncertainty about the demands and the possible benefits of those exchanges is a more plausible explanation for the half-hearted responses than is insincerity regarding strongly held views.

Where their principals have taken initiative to act as principal teachers, and where teachers have been relied on as department heads, faculties tend to approve somewhat more of a larger range of collegial and leadership practices, and to resort to them more often. In both cases, it might be said, authority and the initiative which goes with it have been applied to produce behavioral models for collegiality and leadership and to

provide structural support--time, resources, responsibility, contact--which cooperation and leadership require.

At this juncture, one could recall the requirement of reciprocity in professional exchanges which was described in Chapter 3 and summarized early in this one. By virtue of that requirement, vigorous mutual examination of teaching is a substantial accomplishment, for which both clear models for behavior and appreciable support are necessary. There may be a threshold of contact, knowledge, skill, and support below which instrumental status differences among teachers cannot form, because the participants are not in a position to meet the requirements. If those requirements are understood, at least intuitively, rational persons well might forego any attempt to lead or to cooperate more actively than they have.

Finally, it may be doubted that basic arrangements in most of these schools are compatible with the conception of teaching as a collective venture. If these faculties much resembled that conception, they probably would be doing so mostly on their own time and with their own resources. The usual school schedule, day, and budget would provide them little opportunity or support for trying to make teaching a collective practice.

By such a route, we propose a revision of the arguments with which the chapter began. In many schools, isolation and independence among teachers is the norm--in the sense that isolation is the usual pattern, as distinct from the approved pattern. In the absence of convincing behavioral models, and in the absence of adequate time and resources for building the collective practice of teaching, teachers sensibly are uncertain that more demanding relations among them could pay off in better teaching, or in genuine assistance, or in recognition. When one adds in the clear risks in a vigorous mutual examination of teaching, many teachers are cautious, some are skeptical, and some oppose the idea.

As a group, they may appear resistant to working together. Hesitant invitations to engage more closely may be ignored or rebuffed. Clumsy attempts to install more demanding professional relations as though they were appliances are likely to be rejected. Initiatives which underestimate the requirements of the prospective relationships come to naught, perhaps leaving hard feelings. Humanly, the proponents of the initiatives are more likely to attribute the deficiency to the teachers than to the ideas. Together, teachers' caution, concern, and reactions to clumsy or unfortunate intiatives would supply grounds for others to conclude that the usual case of autonomy and isolation is also the preferred and approved case, when it is not. Teachers in this study's schools have given adequate reason to doubt that they prefer isolation.

That picture contains opportunities to foster leadership by and collective practice among teachers. The initiatives would rely on teachers to rise to challenges. They would engage groups of teachers who are most interested and approving of more instrumental relations, including status differences, among them. Such initiatives would supply clear behavioral models which make it possible to imagine that more demanding and penetrating mutual looks at teaching could be survived and would pay off. They would support the formation of the new procedures and relations explicitly and specifically over some reasonable period of practice and adjustment. They would supply the resources--particularly time in the normal school day--without which the desired relations would be difficult to form.

Clearly, these initiatives would bear appreciable costs. Those costs should be set against the price of perpetuating the isolation of teachers.

TABLE D11. TEACHERS REGARDED AS MASTERS

In every school there are teachers who are known to be highly informed, creative, and skillful. These "master teachers" routinely produce unusually good results. How should they and how do they interact with other teachers?

1. Although no one is formally designated as a master teacher, others in a department pass the word that there is a highly effective teacher in the department, from whom everyone in the department could learn something.

6-20

2. The master teacher responds when asked by another teacher for suggestions, but otherwise does not offer advice.

3. The principal asks a master teacher to meet regularly with a new teacher to help the new teacher to make a good start in the classroom.

DO YOU APPROVE?							DOES IT HAPPEN?			
Strongly Disappr.		Don't Care		Strongly Approve			Almost Never	Some-times	Often	Almost Always
-3	-2	-1	0	+1	+2	+3	1	2	3	4

Item means and standard deviations by school.

	MEAN	S.D.	MEAN	S.D.
All	1.9	1.2	2.3	.9
3	1.4	1.5	2.0	.9
4	2.1	1.0	2.6	.9
5	2.2	.8	2.5	.9
6	2.0	.9	2.3	.8
7	2.1	1.1	2.2	.9
8	1.9	1.1	2.2	.8
	-...-...-...o...+...+...+		o . . . o . . . o . . . o	
All	1.7	1.3	2.5	.9
3	1.8	1.3	2.4	.9
4	1.7	1.4	2.9	.8
5	1.8	1.2	2.6	.7
6	1.8	.9	2.6	.9
7	2.1	.9	2.5	.9
8	1.6	1.4	2.4	.8
	-...-...-...o...+...+...+		o . . . o . . . o . . . o	
All	1.7	1.3	1.7	.8
3	1.2	1.5	1.7	.7
4	2.4	1.2	2.1	.8
5	2.2	1.1	1.7	.8
6	1.7	1.2	1.8	.8
7	1.6	1.2	1.5	.8
8	1.7	1.3	1.6	.7
	-...-...-...o...+...+...+		o . . . o . . . o . . . o	

TABLE D11 (page 2). TEACHERS REGARDED AS MASTERS

In every school there are teachers who are known to be highly informed, creative, and skillful. These "master teachers" routinely produce unusually good results. How should they and how do they interact with other teachers?

4. The principal asks a master teacher to meet regularly with an experienced teacher to advance that teacher's practice.

6-21

5. The principal assigns master teachers from the school to prepare and lead inservice workshops for the faculty.

6. A master teacher circulates a professional article with the note that s/he found it particularly useful.

DO YOU APPROVE?							DOES IT HAPPEN?			
Strongly Disappr.			Don't Care		Strongly Approve		Almost Never	Some-times	Often	Almost Always
-3	-2	-1	0	+1	+2	+3	1	2	3	4

Item means and standard deviations by school.

	MEAN	S.D.	MEAN	S.D.
All	1.0	1.6	1.4	.6
3	.3	1.7	1.4	.7
4	1.8	1.5	1.8	.8
5	1.6	1.3	1.4	.7
6	1.1	1.3	1.3	.4
7	1.1	1.4	1.4	.6
8	1.0	1.6	1.3	.5
	-...-...-...o...+...+...+		o . . . o . . . o . . . o	
All	1.4	1.5	1.7	.8
3	.5	1.6	1.5	.7
4	2.1	1.1	2.7	.8
5	1.9	1.2	2.0	.8
6	1.7	1.3	1.3	.6
7	1.3	1.7	1.5	.7
8	1.6	1.5	1.5	.7
	-...-...-...o...+...+...+		o . . . o . . . o . . . o	
All	1.6	1.3	1.8	.9
3	1.0	1.5	1.8	.8
4	2.0	1.1	1.9	.8
5	1.9	1.2	2.4	1.1
6	1.7	1.1	1.9	1.0
7	1.3	1.1	1.5	.7
8	1.7	1.3	1.8	.8
	-...-...-...o...+...+...+		o . . . o . . . o . . . o	

TABLE D11 (page 3). TEACHERS REGARDED AS MASTERS

In every school there are teachers who are known to be highly informed, creative, and skillful. These "master teachers" routinely produce unusually good results. How should they and how do they interact with other teachers?

7. A master teacher notices that another teacher is having some trouble with classroom discipline, and offers to help.

8. A master teacher puts copies of a lesson plan into other teachers' boxes, along with the note that the lesson seemed to go well.

9. A master teacher agrees to provide inservice training for teachers in other schools.

DO YOU APPROVE?							DOES IT HAPPEN?			
Strongly Disappr.		Don't Care		Strongly Approve			Almost Never	Some-times	Often	Almost Always
-3	-2	-1	0	+1	+2	+3	1	2	3	4

Item means and standard deviations by school.

	MEAN	S.D.	MEAN	S.D.
All	1.4	1.4	1.6	.7
3	.9	1.6	1.6	.6
4	1.7	1.3	1.7	.6
5	1.8	1.0	1.7	.7
6	1.3	1.3	1.7	.7
7	1.5	1.4	1.6	.6
8	1.4	1.4	1.6	.6
	-...-...-...o...+...+...+		o . . . o . . . o . . . o	
All	.4	1.8	1.2	.5
3	-.1	1.8	1.2	.5
4	1.0	1.7	1.2	.4
5	1.2	1.6	1.3	.6
6	-.1	1.6	1.2	.6
7	0	1.8	1.1	.3
8	.5	1.8	1.2	.5
	-...-...-...o...+...+...+		o . . . o . . . o . . . o	
All	1.5	1.4	1.6	.7
3	.8	1.6	1.4	.6
4	2.2	.9	2.2	.9
5	1.8	1.1	1.6	.6
6	1.5	1.3	1.7	.7
7	1.6	1.2	1.5	.6
8	1.6	1.3	1.5	.6
	-...-...-...o...+...+...+		o . . . o . . . o . . . o	

TABLE D12. LEADERSHIP BY DEPARTMENT HEADS

Department heads have been asked to contribute more to the advancement of teaching:

1. The department head deals with the administration so that the department members can concentrate on teaching.

2. The department head encourages teachers to attend particular conferences, workshops, and training sessions.

3. The department head calls in a district supervisor to work with a teacher.

DO YOU APPROVE?							DOES IT HAPPEN?			
Strongly Disappr.			Don't Care	Strongly Approve			Almost Never	Some-times	Often	Almost Always
-3	-2	-1	0	+1	+2	+3	1	2	3	4

Item means and standard deviations by school.

	MEAN	S.D.	MEAN	S.D.
All	1.9	1.4	2.8	1.0
3	1.4	1.5	2.4	.9
4	1.4	1.7	2.4	1.0
5	1.8	1.5	2.5	.9
6	1.3	1.3	2.5	1.0
7	2.2	1.3	3.2	.7
8	2.5	.9	3.3	.8
	-...-...-...o...+...+...+		o . . . o . . . o . . . o	
All	1.9	1.2	2.4	1.0
3	1.2	1.4	2.1	.8
4	1.9	1.1	1.8	.7
5	1.9	.9	1.8	.8
6	1.6	1.1	2.2	1.1
7	2.0	1.0	2.4	1.0
8	2.4	.9	3.0	1.0
	-...-...-...o...+...+...+		o . . . o . . . o . . . o	
All	.2	1.7	1.3	.6
3	.1	1.8	1.4	.7
4	0	1.7	1.0	.2
5	.6	1.6	1.1	.4
6	-.3	1.5	1.1	.4
7	.5	1.8	1.5	.8
8	.3	1.7	1.3	.7
	-...-...-...o...+...+...+		o . . . o . . . o . . . o	

TABLE D12 (page 2). LEADERSHIP BY DEPARTMENT HEADS

Department heads have been asked to contribute more to the advancement of teaching:

4. The department head suggests specific ways a teacher could improve his or her teaching.

6-24

5. The department head asks the department members to meet once a month, after hours, to study some options for teaching.

6. The department head uses a department meeting to deliver a workshop on some teaching methods.

DO YOU APPROVE?							DOES IT HAPPEN?			
Strongly Disappr.		Don't Care		Strongly Approve			Almost Never	Some-times	Often	Almost Always
-3	-2	-1	0	+1	+2	+3	1	2	3	4

Item means and standard deviations by school.

	MEAN	S.D.	MEAN	S.D.
All	1.4	1.5	2.0	.9
3	.5	1.7	1.5	.8
4	1.4	1.3	1.5	.7
5	1.2	1.5	1.4	.7
6	.9	1.5	1.5	.8
7	1.5	1.4	2.3	.8
8	2.3	.8	2.7	.8
	-...-...-...o...+...+...+		o . . . o . . . o . . . o	
All	.9	1.7	1.8	1.0
3	.5	1.7	1.5	.7
4	1.2	1.4	1.5	.8
5	1.1	1.8	1.8	1.0
6	1.0	1.6	1.9	1.0
7	.3	1.9	1.8	.9
8	1.1	1.7	2.0	1.1
	-...-...-...o...+...+...+		o . . . o . . . o . . . o	
All	1.0	1.7	1.5	.8
3	.2	1.8	1.4	.7
4	1.3	1.3	1.3	.5
5	1.2	1.4	1.3	.5
6	1.3	1.4	1.6	.7
7	.9	1.7	1.5	.8
8	1.3	1.6	1.8	.9
	-...-...-...o...+...+...+		o . . . o . . . o . . . o	

TABLE D13. TEACHERS WORK TOGETHER

Teachers can work together and help each other in a variety of ways:

1. Teachers talk about teaching in their department meetings.

6-25

2. Two teachers get together for three or four minutes each morning to share their teaching plans for the day.

3. Teachers read and comment on each other's course materials and tests.

DO YOU APPROVE?							DOES IT HAPPEN?			
Strongly Disappr.			Don't Care	Strongly Approve			Almost Never	Some-times	Often	Almost Always
-3	-2	-1	0	+1	+2	+3	1	2	3	4

Item means and standard deviations by school.

	MEAN	S.D.	MEAN	S.D.
All	2.0	1.2	2.4	1.0
3	1.4	1.4	2.2	.9
4	2.4	.8	2.6	1.0
5	2.3	.7	2.6	1.0
6	2.5	.7	3.2	.8
7	2.3	.8	2.2	.9
8	1.8	1.3	2.3	1.0
	-...-...-...o...+...+...+		o . . . o . . . o . . . o	
All	1.5	1.4	2.1	1.0
3	1.0	1.5	2.0	1.0
4	2.3	1.0	2.5	1.2
5	1.4	1.4	1.7	.9
6	1.9	1.0	2.3	1.1
7	1.8	1.0	2.1	.9
8	1.3	1.6	2.0	.9
	-...-...-...o...+...+...+		o . . . o . . . o . . . o	
All	1.5	1.3	2.0	.9
3	.9	1.5	1.7	.8
4	2.3	1.0	2.3	1.0
5	1.8	1.2	1.8	.9
6	1.9	.9	2.2	1.0
7	1.8	.9	2.0	.7
8	1.5	1.3	2.0	.9
	-...-...-...o...+...+...+		o . . . o . . . o . . . o	

TABLE D13 (page 2). TEACHERS WORK TOGETHER

Teachers can work together and help each other in a variety of ways:

4. A new teacher asks an experienced teacher for advice about teaching.

5. Teachers discuss how best to handle a particular kind of event in their classes.

6. Teachers recommend books, articles, or materials to each other.

DO YOU APPROVE?							DOES IT HAPPEN?			
Strongly Disappr.			Don't Care		Strongly Approve		Almost Never	Some-times	Often	Almost Always
-3	-2	-1	0	+1	+2	+3	1	2	3	4

Item means and standard deviations by school.

	MEAN	S.D.	MEAN	S.D.
All	2.4	.8	2.6	.9
3	2.0	1.1	2.4	.8
4	2.6	.7	2.4	.7
5	2.7	.5	2.7	.9
6	2.6	.7	2.8	1.0
7	2.6	.6	2.7	.9
8	2.5	.7	2.7	.9
	-...-...-...o...+...+...+		o . . . o . . . o . . . o	

All	2.2	1.0	2.5	.8
3	1.6	1.4	2.2	.9
4	2.6	.6	2.7	.9
5	2.4	.6	2.7	.7
6	2.4	.8	2.8	.8
7	2.3	.6	2.5	.9
8	2.3	.8	2.5	.8
	-...-...-...o...+...+...+		o . . . o . . . o . . . o	

All	2.3	.9	2.6	.8
3	1.9	1.2	2.4	.8
4	2.6	.7	2.5	.8
5	2.5	.7	2.7	.8
6	2.2	.9	2.7	.8
7	2.5	.6	2.6	.9
8	2.4	.7	2.7	.8
	-...-...-...o...+...+...+		o . . . o . . . o . . . o	

TABLE D13 (page 3). TEACHERS WORK TOGETHER

Teachers can work together and help each other in a variety of ways:

7. An experienced teacher asks another experienced teacher for advice about teaching.

8. A teacher recommends a specific teaching technique to another teacher.

9. Teachers socialize on breaks or after work.

DO YOU APPROVE?							DOES IT HAPPEN?			
Strongly Disappr.		Don't Care		Strongly Approve			Almost Never	Some-times	Often	Almost Always
-3	-2	-1	0	+1	+2	+3	1	2	3	4

Item means and standard deviations by school.

	MEAN	S.D.	MEAN	S.D.
All	2.3	1.0	2.5	.9
3	1.7	1.5	2.2	.8
4	2.7	.5	2.5	.8
5	2.6	.5	2.6	.8
6	2.4	.8	2.5	.8
7	2.5	.7	2.6	.9
8	2.5	.7	2.6	.9
	-...-...-...o...+...+...+		o . . . o . . . o . . . o	
All	2.0	1.1	2.2	.8
3	1.4	1.4	2.0	.8
4	2.3	.9	2.3	.8
5	2.2	1.0	2.2	1.0
6	2.1	.9	2.3	.8
7	2.2	.8	2.4	.9
8	2.2	.9	2.3	.8
	-...-...-...o...+...+...+		o . . . o . . . o . . . o	
All	2.0	1.1	2.6	.8
3	1.7	1.2	2.4	.8
4	2.2	1.0	2.6	.8
5	2.1	1.0	2.5	.9
6	2.3	1.0	3.0	.7
7	1.9	.9	2.6	.8
8	1.9	1.2	2.5	.8
	-...-...-...o...+...+...+		o . . . o . . . o . . . o	

TABLE D13 (page 4). TEACHERS WORK TOGETHER

Teachers can work together and help each other in a variety of ways:

10. Noticing that s/he seems distressed, one teacher asks another teacher whether s/he can help.

6-28

11. Teachers notice and praise each other's work.

12. Seeing that another teacher consistently is having trouble in the classroom, some teachers mention it to the principal.

DO YOU APPROVE?							DOES IT HAPPEN?			
Strongly Disappr.			Don't Care		Strongly Approve		Almost Never	Some-times	Often	Almost Always
-3	-2	-1	0	+1	+2	+3	1	2	3	4

Item means and standard deviations by school.

	MEAN	S.D.	MEAN	S.D.
All	2.3	.9	2.5	.9
3	1.6	1.2	2.3	.8
4	2.7	.5	2.4	.9
5	2.6	.6	2.8	1.0
6	2.5	.7	2.7	.8
7	2.4	.7	2.5	.7
8	2.4	.8	2.4	.8
	-...-...-...o...+...+...+		o . . . o . . . o . . . o	
All	2.4	1.0	2.3	.8
3	1.7	1.6	2.0	.8
4	2.8	.4	2.5	1.0
5	2.7	.5	2.6	.8
6	2.4	.8	2.4	.8
7	2.5	.7	2.3	.7
8	2.5	.7	2.3	.9
	-...-...-...o...+...+...+		o . . . o . . . o . . . o	
All	.1	2.0	1.7	.7
3	.1	1.9	1.8	.7
4	.5	2.1	2.0	.8
5	.6	2.0	1.8	.6
6	.5	1.6	1.5	.6
7	-.7	2.1	1.5	.8
8	-.2	2.0	1.7	.7
	-...-...-...o...+...+...+		o . . . o . . . o . . . o	

TABLE D14. CONSIDERATIONS IN TEACHERS' COOPERATION

You and another member of your faculty have been asked to share your ideas and methods for teaching, to assemble the best methods that the two of you can come up with, and to use those methods and techniques well in your work. You will have some choice about the person with whom you are to work. Provided this much information, are you likely to agree to work with another in this way?

Assume that you do agree to work together. The two of you are now partners. Below is a list of statements about you and your partner and the way you work together. Assume that each one turns out to be true. Indicate how important you think that factor will be to the success of your partnership.

6-29

1. The two of you already know and trust each other.

2. Both of you are good teachers.

3. You work together often, e.g., once or twice a week instead of once a month.

4. You work together routinely, e.g. every Wednesday morning or every other Tuesday, instead of whenever it's handy.

5. You work together over an extended period, e.g., two or three semesters or years rather than two or three weeks or months.

Item means and standard deviations by school:

		Definitely Would Not				Definitely Would	
	1 . . . 2 . . . 3 . . . 4 . . . 5						
	All	3	4	5	6	7	8
Mean	4.1	3.6	4.4	4.2	4.4	4.2	4.1
S.D.	.9	1.0	.6	.9	.6	1.0	.8

		Not Important				Very Important	
	1 . . . 2 . . . 3 . . . 4 . . . 5						
	All	3	4	5	6	7	8
Mean	4.4	4.4	4.6	4.5	4.5	4.6	4.3
S.D.	.8	.9	.6	.9	.8	.7	.9
		o . . . o . . . o . . . o . . . o					
Mean	4.4	4.2	4.3	4.4	4.3	4.5	4.5
S.D.	.8	.9	.8	.7	.8	.6	.7
		o . . . o . . . o . . . o . . . o					
Mean	4.1	4.1	4.1	4.3	4.3	4.1	4.0
S.D.	.9	.9	1.0	.7	.8	.9	1.0
		o . . . o . . . o . . . o . . . o					
Mean	3.8	3.8	3.7	4.0	3.9	3.6	3.8
S.D.	1.1	1.1	1.3	1.0	.9	1.1	1.1
		o . . . o . . . o . . . o . . . o					
Mean	3.6	3.7	3.7	3.6	3.6	3.7	3.5
S.D.	1.1	1.0	1.3	1.0	1.1	1.1	1.1
		o . . . o . . . o . . . o . . . o					

TABLE D14 (page 2). CONSIDERATIONS IN TEACHERS' COOPERATION

6. To avoid misunderstanding, the two of you agree in advance on how you will treat each other.

7. If things aren't going well, each of you feels free to say so and why.

8. The two of you find an adequate place to work together.

9. The two of you focus in on one or a few methods of teaching at a time.

10. The two of you also socialize outside school.

11. The two of you have shared terms for describing and analyzing teaching.

12. One or both of you are familiar with the literature on teaching.

13. The two of you are given a free class period to work together.

14. The two of you get down to the very specific and concrete aspects of each teaching method that you explore.

		Not Important					Very Important
		1 . . . 2 . . . 3 . . . 4 . . . 5					
	All	3	4	5	6	7	8
Mean	3.6	3.6	4.3	3.6	3.7	3.5	3.5
S.D.	1.2	1.1	.7	1.1	1.3	1.5	1.2
		o . . . o . . . o . . . o . . . o					
Mean	4.5	4.3	4.7	4.5	4.7	4.7	4.6
S.D.	.7	.9	.5	.7	.5	.5	.6
		o . . . o . . . o . . . o . . . o					
Mean	4.4	4.3	4.3	4.5	4.2	4.5	4.5
S.D.	.7	.9	.8	.7	.7	.6	.6
		o . . . o . . . o . . . o . . . o					
Mean	4.2	4.1	4.3	4.4	4.2	4.3	4.2
S.D.	.7	.8	.6	.6	.7	.8	.8
		o . . . o . . . o . . . o . . . o					
Mean	2.5	2.5	2.4	2.4	2.4	2.3	2.6
S.D.	1.1	1.2	1.1	1.2	.9	1.1	1.2
		o . . . o . . . o . . . o . . . o					
Mean	3.9	3.7	4.4	3.8	4.1	3.9	3.9
S.D.	.9	.9	.7	.8	.7	.9	.9
		o . . . o . . . o . . . o . . . o					
Mean	3.8	3.4	4.4	3.9	3.9	3.7	3.7
S.D.	.9	1.1	.5	.8	.8	.8	1.0
		o . . . o . . . o . . . o . . . o					
Mean	4.2	3.9	4.5	4.7	4.2	4.5	4.1
S.D.	.9	1.1	.9	.6	1.0	.7	.9
		o . . . o . . . o . . . o . . . o					
Mean	4.1	3.9	4.5	4.4	4.2	4.1	4.0
S.D.	.9	1.1	.7	.7	.8	.9	.9
		o . . . o . . . o . . . o . . . o					

TABLE D14 (page 3). CONSIDERATIONS IN TEACHERS' COOPERATION

15. The two of you already have, or come to share, similar philosophies or theories of teaching.

16. Each of you takes the initiative in suggesting ideas and options to the other.

17. The two of you know, or learn, how to criticize a practice without criticizing each other.

18. Each of you does that part of the work that s/he can do best.

19. Each of you seeks an honest, professional exchange, even at some risk to friendship.

20. Each of you gives as much as s/he asks for.

21. Your colleagues in the school say that they admire educators who work together.

If you knew that MOST of these statements would turn out to be true, would you agree to the request to work together?

		Not Important				Very Important	
	1 . . . 2 . . . 3 . . . 4 . . . 5						
	All	3	4	5	6	7	8
Mean	3.7	3.7	3.8	3.9	3.7	3.5	3.7
S.D.	1.0	1.0	1.1	.9	1.0	1.1	1.0
		o . . . o . . . o . . . o . . . o					
Mean	4.4	4.1	4.5	4.4	4.4	4.6	4.5
S.D.	.7	.8	.6	.7	.6	.5	.6
		o . . . o . . . o . . . o . . . o					
Mean	4.5	4.3	4.8	4.5	4.4	4.5	4.5
S.D.	.7	.9	.5	.7	.9	.7	.6
		o . . . o . . . o . . . o . . . o					
Mean	4.4	4.2	4.4	4.5	4.2	4.4	4.4
S.D.	.8	.9	.7	.7	.9	.7	.6
		o . . . o . . . o . . . o . . . o					
Mean	4.0	3.8	4.3	4.1	4.0	4.1	4.1
S.D.	.9	1.0	.7	.9	.9	.9	.9
		o . . . o . . . o . . . o . . . o					
Mean	4.2	4.0	4.4	4.4	4.2	4.2	4.3
S.D.	.8	.9	.8	.7	.7	.8	.8
		o . . . o . . . o . . . o . . . o					
Mean	3.0	2.9	3.1	3.4	2.9	2.9	2.9
S.D.	1.3	1.3	1.3	1.4	1.3	1.3	1.3
		o . . . o . . . o . . . o . . . o					

		Definitely Would Not				Definitely Would	
	1 . . . 2 . . . 3 . . . 4 . . . 5						
	All	3	4	5	6	7	8
Mean	4.2	3.8	4.5	4.4	4.5	4.4	4.3
S.D.	.9	1.0	.6	.8	.7	1.0	.9

TABLE D15. REACTIONS TO OPTIONS FOR DIFFERENTIAL PAY

There have been proposals in some states for differential pay among teachers, such as "merit pay" plans. Taking into account both the good of students and the good of teachers, please indicate whether you would support or oppose each of the following possibilities for pay differences among teachers.

1. Teachers would rise in the salary schedule with each year of service.

2. Teachers would rise in the salary schedule with each academic degree or block of college credits they earn.

3. In addition to pay according to the current schedule, some teachers would be nominated for merit awards by their administrators, on the basis of the present procedures for evaluating teachers.

4. In addition to pay according to the current schedule, some teachers would be nominated by their administrators for merit awards, on the basis of thorough and skillful observation of their work in the classroom.

5. In addition to pay according to the current schedule, some teachers would be nominated for merit awards on the basis of observation of their classroom performance by qualified persons from outside the school.

Strongly Oppose — Don't Know — Strongly Support

1 . . . 2 . . . 3 . . . 4 . . . 5

Item means and standard deviations by school.

	All	3	4	5	6	7	8
Mean	4.4	4.3	4.3	4.4	4.5	4.6	4.5
S.D.	.7	.8	.7	.9	.7	.7	.7
		o . . . o . . . o . . . o . . . o					
Mean	4.4	4.2	4.4	4.4	4.4	4.4	4.5
S.D.	.8	.9	.9	1.0	.6	1.0	.7
		o . . . o . . . o . . . o . . . o					
Mean	2.8	2.5	3.3	2.8	2.5	2.4	2.9
S.D.	1.4	1.4	1.4	1.4	1.2	1.4	1.4
		o . . . o . . . o . . . o . . . o					
Mean	3.2	2.8	3.7	3.3	3.2	2.8	3.4
S.D.	1.4	1.5	1.4	1.3	1.4	1.6	1.3
		o . . . o . . . o . . . o . . . o					
Mean	2.9	2.4	3.7	2.9	3.5	2.4	3.0
S.D.	1.4	1.4	1.4	1.2	1.1	1.4	1.5
		o . . . o . . . o . . . o . . . o					

TABLE D15 (page 2). REACTIONS TO OPTIONS FOR DIFFERENTIAL PAY

There have been proposals in some states for differential pay among teachers, such as "merit pay" plans. Taking into account both the good of students and the good of teachers, please indicate whether you would support or oppose each of the following possibilities for pay differences among teachers.

6. In addition to pay according to the current schedule, some teachers would be nominated for merit awards on the basis of their students' gains on standard tests for each course.

7. On the basis of stringent evaluations of their performance in the classroom, teachers would rise through a "career ladder," from beginning teacher to practicing teacher to senior teacher. Each promotion would bring both greater pay and increased responsibility for helping other teachers to teach well.

	Strongly Oppose		Don't Know		Strongly Support	
	1 . . .	2 . . .	3 . . .	4 . . .	5	

Item means and standard deviations by school.

	All	3	4	5	6	7	8
Mean	2.0	1.7	2.6	2.2	2.4	1.6	2.0
S.D.	1.2	1.0	1.4	1.2	1.1	1.1	1.1
		o . . .	o . . .	o . . .	o . . .	o	
Mean	3.5	3.3	4.1	4.0	3.7	2.6	3.5
S.D.	1.2	1.1	1.3	1.0	1.0	1.3	1.2
		o . . .	o . . .	o . . .	o . . .	o	

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